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What Are They?
What Do They Do?

BY

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Walter H. Eddy and G. G. Hawley WE NEED VITAMINS

What Are They? What Do They Do?

\$1.50

Informed American people spent \$100,000,000 on vitamin preparations last year! You owe it to yourself to learn why!

IF YOU-

don't like liver or spinach;
can't remember one vitamin from another;
are a vegetarian;
"eat out" frequently;
are a housewife planning family meals;
are skeptical about the claims made for the value of vitamins;
think that vitamins are a magic cure-all;
are taking, or plan to take, vitamin concentrates or capsules;
are puzzled by the complexity of everything you have read on the subject;
want a brief, compact account of what the different vitamins are and what they do;

—YOU NEED THIS EASY-READING, AUTHORITATIVE BOOK

This book is in reality a Primer of the nature and functions of all the known vitamins. It inic convins authentic, simply stated information designed primarily for the general reader. The latest values of the vitamin content of foodstuffs are given in handy the form.

The general reader will find eful summary of the fascinat

This presentation answers simply and clearly the following questions concerning each vitamin:

- 1. What is the vitamin?
- 2. What are its chemical and physical properties?
- 3. How is its potency determined and expressed?
- 4. What does the vitamin do?
- 5. How does it accomplish this effect?
- 6. How much of it do we need daily?
- 7. Where and how can we get it?

CONTENTS

I. What Are Vitamins?	7
II. VITAMIN A	2 I
III. THE B COMPLEX. VITAMIN B ₁	3 I
IV. THE B COMPLEX Vitamin B ₂ (Riboflavin)—Nicotinic Acid (Vitamin P-P)— Pyridoxine (Vitamin B ₆)—Pantothenic Acid (Filtrate Factor) —Other Members of the B Complex.	40
V. VITAMIN C. THE ANTISCURVY VI-	61
VI. VITAMIN D. THE ANTIRICKETS VITAMIN	70
VII. VITAMIN E. THE FERTILITY VITAMIN	78
VIII. VITAMIN K. THE COAGULATION VITAMIN	83
IX. VITAMIN P. (Citrin)	87
Appendix. Table of Vitamin Content	
of Foodstuffs	91

I. What Are Vitamins?

What Food Substances Must We Have?

Our daily food is made up of five kinds of substances:

- (1) Proteins (meats and meat substitutes) which enable us to build new tissues, such as muscle, bone, nerve, etc.
- (2) Carbohydrates (starches and sugars) used mainly to supply energy (calories) for the work of the body.
 - (3) Fats, also used as body fuel (calories).

All of these can serve as body fuel, but carbohydrates and fats are *cheaper* than proteins.

- (4) Minerals, such as iron, calcium (lime), phosphorus, etc., used both to build material for body structures and to control the behavior of body fluids and tissues.
- (5) Vitamins, or food hormones, required in tiny amounts to control the body's use of the above substances and also to protect it from certain specific diseases.

What Are Vitamins?

Vitamins, like proteins, fats, and carbohydrates, are organic, or carbon-containing, chem-

ical compounds—substances just as definite as sugar or salt. A number of them, of which the following is a list, have been isolated in pure form, chemically identified, and their structure proved by the fact that they can be produced artificially, or as chemists say, "synthetically." There is no difference in the physiological action of a pure vitamin whether it is extracted from natural food sources or made synthetically.

Vitamins Which Have Been Chemically Identified

Vitamin A (Carotene)

Vitamin B₁ (Thiamine)

Vitamin B₂ or G (Riboflavin)

Vitamin B₆ (Pyridoxine)

Vitamin C (Ascorbic Acid)

Vitamin D (Calciferol and 7-dehydro-cholesterol)

Vitamin E (Alphatocopherol)

Vitamin H (Biotin)

Vitamin K (Naphthoquinone Compounds)

Vitamin P (Eriodyctiol)

Nicotinic Acid or Nicotinic Acid Amide

Pantothenic Acid

At least fourteen others are known to exist but these have not yet been chemically identified.

How Did Vitamins Get Their Names?

In 1911 a Polish chemist, Casimir Funk, isolated from rice polish (a very thin, skinlike coating which covers rice grains, and which is

WHAT ARE VITAMINS?

removed in preparing the rice of commerce) a crystalline substance which cured the disease known as beri-beri, or polyneuritis. Because these crystals contained the chemical element nitrogen combined with hydrogen, Funk knew that they were "amines," the chemist's name for compounds containing this combination. Because these particular crystals preserved life he called them "vita-amine" or, for short, vitamine. When similar substances were discovered, which were also able to cure particular diseases, Funk suggested the general name "Vitamines" for all of them.

In 1913 E. V. McCollum and his assistants extracted from butter and egg fat a substance which, like Funk's crystals, proved to be necessary to growth, and also prevented and cured an eye disease known as "dry eye." McCollum declined to call this a "vitamine" because chemical analysis showed that there was no nitrogen in it. For this reason, and because it would dissolve in fats, he gave it the awkward name of "Unidentified dietary factor fat-soluble A." This was the first use of a letter to denote these substances. With the discovery of other substances of this class we acquired the terms "water-soluble B and C," "fat-soluble D and E," etc.

The two methods of nomenclature were combined when J. C. Drummond in 1921 suggested dropping this cumbersome wording, but retaining the letters and preceding them with the term "vitamin"—Funk's term with the "e" removed. Thus the substances became known simply as vitamins A, B, C, D, E, etc.

The next step in naming the vitamins came with discovery of their behavior toward particular diseases; for instance:

Vitamin A became the anti-"dry eye" vitamin;

Vitamin B became the anti-beriberi or antineuritic vitamin;

Vitamin C became the anti-scurvy vitamin;

Vitamin D became the anti-rickets vitamin.

Present names, however, while not discarding previous terms, tend to be descriptive of the chemical nature of the pure vitamin. Thus vitamin B or B₁ is now known as "thiamine" to indicate its combination of a compound containing nitrogen ("amine") with sulfur ("thio"). Vitamin C is "ascorbic acid." Vitamin G became "riboflavin." For other examples see the vitamin lists.

WHAT ARE VITAMINS?

From the above it is evident that the word "vitamin" describes a group of substances having a common type of physiological behavior but differing in their chemical structure.

Are Vitamins Foods or Drugs?

No hard and fast distinction can be made. When a physician prescribes vitamin C to cure a case of scurvy he is using it as a drug. When he drinks his morning glass of orange juice he is taking the vitamin C in which it is rich as a part of his daily nourishment or food. The druggist sells vitamin pills and capsules, but the grocer also sells vitamins in foodstuffs such as fruits, vegetables, cereals, etc.

It seems unimportant therefore to attempt to put these substances into set classifications as foods or as drugs, especially as they can and are taken daily by everyone to protect health without prescription and without need of supervision.

Are They Perishable?

Some of the vitamins are destroyed by taking up oxygen from the air; some are destroyed by heat, as in cooking; some are destroyed by light. Some are not affected by any of the conditions to which foodstuffs are exposed. A few of them

are affected by the presence of minerals such as copper and iron. Each vitamin, therefore, must be handled in accordance with its peculiarities.

In natural foods the vitamin content of the fresh, raw food may be reduced by methods of storage, marketing and cooking. For that reason tables giving the vitamin content of fresh, raw foodstuffs may show values considerably higher than those in the foods when we eat them.

Because of the peculiarities of each vitamin in respect to perishability, purveyors of these substances in pure form, in fish oils and concentrates, and in foods have been compelled to adopt special measures of protection against deterioration or loss of potency. These precautions may be better discussed under each vitamin reviewed in the succeeding discussions.

Thanks to adequate governmental supervision, the vitamin preparations available to the public in labelled capsules, tablets or enriched foods can be generally relied upon today to deliver the unitage stated on the labels. Retailers of vitamin products should, however, familiarize themselves with the conditions necessary to conserve vitamin potencies and control their products in accordance with this information.

WHAT ARE VITAMINS?

How Is Vitamin Potency or Content Expressed?

For most of the vitamins sold by drug stores in capsule form, and by grocers and butchers as food, it is now possible to give quantities in units of weight. You can buy vitamin C, for example, by the milligram, gram, or ounce. You can express the vitamin C content of orange juice or tomato juice in milligrams, grams or fractions of an ounce, and similarly for vitamins A, B, C, D, E, etc. But most labels continue to express vitamin content or potency in "units": International Units, U. S. Pharmacopeia Units, Sherman-Bourquin Units, etc. What are these "units"?

Before pure vitamins became available it was necessary to estimate amounts present by the growth or other physiological response of test animals. For example, Dr. H. C. Sherman first defined a unit of vitamins A and B as the amount of a source of such vitamins in a diet absolutely free from any other such source, but adequate in all other known nutrient factors, which would produce a gain of 3 grams per week for a period of four weeks in rats previously deprived of all stored vitamin of the type under test. In brief, he worked out a biological test based on growth effect to estimate vitamin potency. This is what

we now call a "bioassay" method. Thus arose expression of potency of vitamins A and B in "Sherman" or "Sherman-Chase" or "Sherman-Munsell" units.

But other scientists devised similar biological tests, and at one time vitamin D potency was expressed in at least four different units: Steenbock units, Poulssen units, American Drug Manufacturers Association units, and rat units. This became very confusing, especially when Viosterol, or vitamin D in oil, became expressed as Viosterol 150 D or 250 D, etc. to indicate that it was 150 or 250 times as rich in that vitamin as cod liver oil. To the layman these terms meant nothing, or merely that one product was so many times as potent as another.

There was need then to eliminate multiplicity of names for units and to make possible the conversion of units into weight of pure vitamin. This was accomplished by the invention of what are today called International Units—units defined by a Committee of the League of Nations and internationally adopted. It was also accomplished by the use of reference materials in bioassays, these materials containing known weights of vitamin. In this country the only other unit terminology is U.S.P. units (United

WHAT ARE VITAMINS?

States Pharmacopeia units); but so far U.S.P. and International Units are identical.

The following table explains the definitions of units used in labelling drug or food content of vitamins in the United States today:

Vitamin Potency

		Available as
V itamin	Unit Definition	Reference Material
A	The amount of source capable of producing the physiological effect of .0006 mg. pure betacarotene equals one International unit.	U.S.P. Reference Cod Liver Oil containing 1700 International units per gram.
Bi	The amount of source capable of producing the physiological effect of .003 mg. pure thiamine equals one International unit.	Crystalline thia- mine or thiamine chloride.
B ₂ (G)	The amount of source capable of producing the physiological effect of .0025 mg. pure riboflavin is one Sherman-Bourquin unit.	Pure riboflavin.
B ₆	The amount of source capable of curing acrodynia in 3 weeks is the Schneider, Ascham, Platz, Steenbock	Pure pyridoxine.

(1939) unit. It represents approximately o.1 mg. B₆ crystals.

C The amount of source capable of producing the physiological effect of .05 mg. pure ascorbic acid equals one International unit.

Pure ascorbic acid.

D The amount of source capable of producing the antiricketic effect of .000025 mg. pure calciferol equals one International unit.

Pure calciferol and U.S.P. Reference oil containing 115 International units of D per gram.

E The amount of source capable in 21 days of rat gestation to insure birth of a litter is an Evans (1922) unit.

Standardized wheat-germ oil.

K The amount of source required per gram of animal weight on three successive days to bring chick blood clotting time to normal is a Dam (1935) unit.

Standardized alfalfa meal extract and synthetic K₁.

For those interested in comparing the preceding unit definitions with those that have been used in the past, the following table also may be of value:

WHAT ARE VITAMINS?

Vitamin Unit Expressions

(I. U. equals International Unit)

Vitamin A

- I. U. is equivalent to .0006 mg. beta-carotene = IU.S.P. unit.
- 1 I. U. is equivalent to 0.7 Sherman unit.
- I gram U.S.P. Cod Liver Oil must contain at least 600 I. U. of A per gram.

Vitamin B₁

I I. U.
is
equivalent

| .003 mg. pure thiamine.
| 2 Sherman-Chase units.
| 0.5 Smith curative unit.
| 1.0 Chick-Roscoe unit.

to 2.0 Cowgill mg. equivalent units.

Vitamin C

- 1 I. U. is equivalent to .05 mg. ascorbic acid.
- 1 I. U. is equivalent to 0.1 Sherman-La Mer unit.
- I cc. ave. orange juice contains approximately 8.5 I. U.

Vitamin D

- 1 I. U. is equivalent to .000025 mg. calciferol = 1 U.S.P. unit.
- I I. U. is equivalent to 3.25 A.D.M.A. units.
- I I. U. is equivalent to 0.37 Steenbock units.
- U.S.P. Cod Liver Oil must contain at least 85 I. U. per gram.
- Viosterol must contain at least 10,000 I. U. of vitamin D per gram.
- Product labelled 250 D or 150 D etc. indicates 250 or 150 times the D content of a potent cod liver oil used as standard. According to Council of Pharmacy a Viosterol labelled 250 D contains 3333

A.D.M.A. rat units per gram or approximately 10,000 I. U. per gram.

Vitamin B2 or G

I Sherman-Bourquin unit is equivalent to 2.5 micrograms Riboflavin. (A microgram or gamma is 1/1000th of a milligram.)

How Is Vitamin Potency Measured Today?

Owing to the extremely tiny amounts present in most sources, isolation and actual weighing are impossible. At present there are four laboratory methods in practice:

- (1) Color-measuring tests, in which the color produced by the vitamin reacting with some chemical is compared with solutions of known vitamin content.
- (2) Tests based on ability of vitamins to absorb light of certain wave lengths.
- (3) Tests in which the amount necessary to produce growth or other response in microorganisms such as bacteria, molds, and yeast is compared with the effect of pure vitamin solutions.
- (4) Bioassays. Tests in which growth response or cure effects of a given amount of source in test animals such as rats, guinea pigs, and chicks is compared with the effect of known amounts of pure vitamin or reference standards of known vitamin content.

WHAT ARE VITAMINS?

The only tests so far accepted by the U. S. Food and Drug Division for Vitamins A, B₁, and D are bioassay methods outlined in detail in the U. S. Pharmacopeia and in the Methods of Analysis of the Association of Official Agricultural Chemists (A.O.A.C.). The other methods are in use for control purposes in producing laboratories today and may in time become accepted as official.

What Do Vitamins Do?

This question will be answered in greater detail in the discussions of the properties of the individual vitamins which follow. In general, however, we may express the functions of vitamins as follows:

- (1) To supply building or reconstruction material to certain substances or tissues which the body uses, for example, Vitamin A is used to build or reconstruct the eye pigments used to produce vision.
- (2) To form active groups in certain enzymes and coenzymes which the body uses in its metabolism, or utilization and conversion of foodstuffs.
- (3) To prevent in some manner (not always clearly determined as yet) pathological or

abnormal changes in body tissues and behavior, for example, Vitamin D in prevention of rickets, Vitamin E in prevention of muscular weakness, Vitamin K in preserving power of blood to clot, etc.

II. Vitamin A

How many forms of this vitamin exist?

Vitamin A₁, found in the liver oils of salt-water fish (cod, halibut, tuna, shark) and in some animal products, such as butter fat, egg yolk, and liver.

Vitamin A₂, found in the livers of fresh-water fish.

Provitamins A, yellow pigments manufactured by plants, especially carotene, the coloring matter of carrots.

What is the difference between Provitamins A and Vitamins A₁ and A₂?

The provitamins are not active in the body until changed by some enzyme into A₁ or A₂, the active forms. The active vitamins A₁ and A₂ are nearly colorless, oily substances, which dissolve in fats and oils, but not in water.

The provitamins are yellow pigments, varying in the amounts of active vitamins they can produce. The four known pigments are alpha, beta, and gamma-carotene and cryptoxanthin. (Chemists often use Greek letters to distinguish between different forms of the same substance.) In liver

oils vitamins A₁ and A₂ occur as alcohols known as sterols.

The provitamins occur as *hydrocarbons*, that is, as combinations of the elements carbon and hydrogen.

Does it matter which form of vitamin A we eat?

Yes. Apparently the body can more effectively utilize the active forms (A₁ and A₂) than the inactive provitamins, which have to be changed in the digestive tract or liver before the body can use them. Booher, basing her conclusions on human tests, reports that beta-carotene is only 50 to 60% as effective as vitamin A in human nutrition.

What are the properties of the vitamins and provitamins A?

(1) They differ in the amounts of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen present. For example,
Vitamin A₁ has 20 carbon, 30 hydrogen and one oxygen atom;
Vitamin A₂ has 22 carbon, 32 hydrogen and one oxygen atom;
Provitamin A (carotene) has 40 carbon, 56 hydrogen and no oxygen atoms.

VITAMIN A

- (2) All are soluble in fats and fat solvents, and insoluble in water.
- (3) All are unchanged by heat, acids and alkalies, but are sensitive to light, and tend to absorb oxygen from the air, that is, to oxidize. Oxidation destroys potency.
- (4) The provitamins are bright yellow, while the A₁ and A₂ forms are nearly colorless.

What do the vitamins A do?

- (1) They are essential for clear vision and they prevent night blindness.
- (2) They are essential for maintaining resistance to germs and infection of the covering and lining membranes of the body (skin, linings of stomach, windpipe, nose, eyelids, etc.). These membranes are called epithelial tissues.
- (3) They are essential to the proper formation of tooth enamel.
- (4) They promote and are necessary for growth.

How do they accomplish these effects?

(1) Vision

The picture formed by light rays on the retina of the eye is *developed* (like a photograph) by nerve impulses which travel from the retina over

the optic nerve to the brain, where they are translated into vision. These nerve impulses are caused by chemical changes involving a pigment in the retina called visual purple (rhodopsin).

Light rays acting on visual purple bleach it to a yellow substance called retinene. This bleaching produces the nerve impulses. Once it is bleached, this pigment cannot again respond to light until it has been changed back to visual purple. It is in this regeneration of retinene to visual purple that vitamin A functions. No regeneration can take place without it. Vitamin A is also essential to the regeneration of another retinal pigment known as visual violet.

(2) Resistance to infection

(a) Nose and Mouth

Layers of cells covering various parts of the body, both inside and outside, are called *epithelial tissues*. Change in the structure of these tissues is caused by too little supply of vitamin A, and is known as *metaplasia*. In animals, lack of vitamin A results in loss of the ability to keep these tissues in healthy condition.

The most important result of the change in tissue structure is that the surface affected no longer performs its function of protecting the

VITAMIN A

area from the attack of germs and infection. The question of whether infection occurs or not depends on how accessible the area is to bacteria. For this reason epithelial changes of the nose, throat and mouth most often result in an infection.

Colds probably start with infection by a specific germ, accompanied by congestion of the nasal passage. Under these conditions it is easy for secondary infections to develop. The Council of Pharmacy of the American Medical Association states its viewpoint on the effectiveness of vitamin A in resisting colds as follows:

"Present indications are that vitamin A is an aid toward establishing resistance of the body to infections in general only when there has been a decrease in body reserves of the vitamin and the ingestion of vitamin A is inadequate. It has not been shown to be specific in the prevention of colds, influenza, and such infections, nor has it been demonstrated that ingestion of vitamin A far in excess of that necessary for normal body function, and readily obtained from a properly selected diet, is an aid in preventing various types of infections."

(b) Skin

The skin is one of the first tissues to show vitamin A deficiency. This is indicated by hardening of the lining of hair follicles, which results in their becoming plugged with masses of hardened material which interferes with the secretion of the oil glands of the skin. This causes skin dryness, which cannot be corrected merely by lubricating the skin tissue.

(c) Genito-urinary tract

Deficiency of vitamin A produces changes in the epithelial tissue of the uterus. As with the respiratory tract, this prepares the way for development of infection or change of function in this region.

There is little evidence to show that lack of vitamin A is the cause of bladder stones, although it has been claimed that such is the case.

(d) Eye Regions

The condition known as "dry-eye" (xerophthalmia) is related to Vitamin A deficiency, although it does not appear until the deficiency has continued for some time. It is characterized by hardening of the epithelial tissues of the eyeball and the under surface of the eyelid. The tear

VITAMIN A

glands atrophy, so that tears cannot wash the eyeball, which becomes bloodshot and swollen. In extreme cases the eyeball may become ulcerated.

The fact that this was the first ailment found to be due to lack of vitamin A is responsible for the early use of the term "anti-dry-eye" or "anti-xerophthalmic" to describe this vitamin.

(3) Tooth Enamel

Tooth enamel is an epithelial structure. Lack of vitamin A causes metaplasia of the organs producing the enamel. This is followed by loss of enamel and exposure of the dentin, which gives the teeth a chalky appearance. At the same time tooth growth ceases. An adequate supply of vitamin A is therefore essential for proper formation and maintenance of tooth enamel.

How much Vitamin A do we need daily?

For the adult the *minimum* requirement appears to be about 4000 International Units daily. Amounts necessary not only to protect against pathological conditions but to insure adequate growth have been variously estimated. A recent estimate of vitamin A requirements given by the National Research Council's Committee on Foods and Nutrition is as follows:

Individuals	Calorie Intake	International Units Vitamin A Daily
Man weighing 140 lbs. Moderately active		5000 / 60
Very active	4500	5000 h
Sedentary	2500	5000 hi
Woman weighing 112 lbs		= 3
Moderately active	2500	5000
Very active	3000	5000
Sedentary	2100	5000
During latter half preg-		
nancy		6000
During lactation	3000	8000
Children up to 12 years		
Under 1 year	50 per lb.	1500
I- 3 years	1200	2000
4- 6 years	1600	2500
7- 9 years	2000	3500
10-12 years	2500	4500
Children over 12 years Girls		
13-15 years	2800	5000
16–20 years	2400	5000
\mathbf{Boys}		
13-15 years	3200	5000
16-20 years	3800	6000

In its foreword to the publication of this table, the Committee stated:

"In using these recommendations it is important that the purposes and general policies which the Committee had in mind in formulating them should be understood:

VITAMIN A

"The allowances for specific nutrients are intended to serve as a guide for planning adequate nutrition for the civilian population of the United States. The quantities as given were planned to provide a reasonable margin of safety, but they do not allow for any extensive losses in cooking. . . . The Committee realizes that the values proposed will need to be revised from time to time as more knowledge of nutritive requirements becomes available.

"It is understood that these allowances are for persons in health, and they may vary markedly in disease."

Where can we get Vitamin A?

Capsules, tablets, and fish liver oils or liver oil concentrates are everywhere available in drug stores today. In natural foods the following classification helps in choice:

Food Sources of Vitamin A and Provitamin A

Type of Food	Excellent Sources	Good Sources
Animal products	Fish liver oils, liver, fish roe, egg yolk, butter, cheese.	Cream, kidney, oysters, whole milk, red sal- mon.
Vegetables	Kale, spinach, dande- lion greens, dock, es- carole, chard, lambs-	Green asparagus, okra, Brussels sprouts.

quarters, turnip tops, green lettuce, collards, water cress, Chinese cabbage, broccoli, mustard greens, beet greens, carrots, sweet potatoes, yellow squash, sweet peppers, red tomatoes, green peas, green beans.

globe artichokes, yellow tomatoes.

Fruits

Apricots, papayas, mangoes, prunes, yellow peaches. Avocados, guavas, cantaloups, black-berries, bananas, pineapples, black currants, blueberries, green and ripe olives, dates, deep-yellow juice oranges.

Cereal

Yellow corn

For quantitative distribution of vitamin A in foods, see Appendix.

III. The B Complex

VITAMIN B_1 (THIAMINE)

Why is it called Vitamin B₁?

In 1916 a water extract of certain substances which were found to cure beri-beri and also to promote growth was defined as "water-soluble B." Later it was discovered that this extract contained not one, but several vitamins (the B complex). Although some of these had no effect on beri-beri, they did cure other ailments. It was therefore decided to restrict the term "vitamin B₁" to the factor that prevented beri-beri. The name "thiamine" applies to vitamin B₁, which is now produced synthetically. It is sold under the name of thiamine chloride.

What is Vitamin B_1 ?

Vitamin B₁, or thiamine, is a carbon-containing (organic) compound composed of two parts, one of which contains *nitrogen* and the other *sulfur*. Its richest sources in nature are yeast and the outer coating and germ of the kernels of wheat, corn, rice, rye, barley, etc. It also occurs

in a slightly different form in the tissues of the human body.

What are the properties of Vitamin B₁?

The pure, or synthesized, form of B₁ is crystalline. This vitamin is not destroyed by absorbing oxygen, as some others are, but it is separated into its nitrogen and sulfur components by sulfite. This separation completely inactivates it.

Vitamin B₁ is destroyed by heating, especially above the boiling point of water (212° F.), if the exposure to heat goes on for some time, as in frying, roasting and baking. Pork chops may lose 35 per cent of their B₁ content during frying and roast beef up to 60 per cent.

Commercially prepared B₁ crystals have a slightly salty taste and are colorless and odorless. They take up water readily from the air and are very soluble in water, but only slightly soluble in alcohol.

How is Vitamin B₁ potency expressed?

As shown in the table on page 16, an International unit or a U.S.P. unit of vitamin B₁ is equivalent to .00333 milligram of B₁ crystals. A Sherman-Chase unit is about half an International unit, or .00166 milligram. Labels now usually express potency in milligrams or in Inter-

VITAMIN B₁

national or U.S.P. units. One milligram of B₁ contains 333 International units.

What does Vitamin B₁ do?

- (1) It is essential for utilization of starches and sugars (carbohydrates) by the body tissues.
- (2) It stimulates appetite and normal intestinal functions.
- (3) It is essential to proper nerve function.
- (4) It is necessary for reproduction and lactation.
- (5) It cures beri-beri and prevents certain forms of neuritis and the heart and circulation disorders associated with this disease.
- (6) It promotes and is essential to growth.

How does it accomplish these effects?

(1) Utilization of starches and sugars (carbohydrates)

It was shown by Funk in 1914 that persons on a diet rich in sugars and starches showed symptoms of B₁ deficiency more quickly than those on diets rich in fats and proteins. This was the first indication that vitamin B₁ needs are related to body fuel supply, and to the special kind of fuel represented by carbohydrates.

Cowgill followed up this finding by working out a mathematical expression for minimum

human requirements of vitamin B₁, that is, enough to prevent beri-beri. His formula was based on the weight and on the calorie intake. Using this formula, a 140-lb. man with an intake of 2500 calories would require 248 International units of vitamin B₁ daily.

The reason that vitamin B₁ can "handle" the sugars and starches in the body is that it is an active chemical factor in the transformation of glucose (sugar) into carbon dioxide and water, with release of energy. With too little B₁, the change is incomplete. This results in an accumulation of pyruvic acid; indeed the amount of this acid in the blood is used today as an indication of a lack of this vitamin.

This faulty or incomplete burning of fuel (sugars and starches) is all that is necessary to explain abnormal nerve and tissue behavior in cases of B₁ deficiency; with incomplete fuel utilization the ability of the tissue to work normally is hampered.

(2) Effect on appetite

Loss of appetite has always been associated with a deficiency of vitamin B₁. It was originally suggested that the reason for this lay in the lack of nerve stimulus to the muscles controlling movements of the stomach. Though it is defi-

VITAMIN B₁

nitely known that weakness of the stomach muscles is a result of lack of vitamin B₁, it is not so certain that this is due to nerve derangement. The precise way in which B₁ deficiency causes loss of appetite is still uncertain.

(3) Other consequences of B₁ deficiency

(a) Constipation

That vitamin B₁ has a definite effect on the function of the intestines and that it corrects some types of constipation is generally agreed. It has been proved that the laxative effect of bran depends not only on its providing bulk, but on its B₁ content. The laxative action of mineral oil is increased by addition of crystalline vitamin B₁. There are various causes of constipation, and in any given case the test of its relation to B₁ deficiency is whether or not it responds to treatment with this vitamin.

(b) Heart effects

Since heart failure is the ultimate cause of death in beri-beri, which vitamin B₁ has been proved to cure, the question of the effect of B₁ on the heart has been studied by several investigators. However, no conclusive evidence has been established as to just what part this vitamin plays in this respect.

(c) Nerve Effects

Vitamin B₁ has often been called the *morale* vitamin because of its effect on the nervous system. The mechanism of this effect has been explained on the basis that lack of this vitamin prevents normal metabolism of the nerve tissue. One of the striking effects of treating nervous derangements with vitamin B₁ is the promptness of recovery. Just how the vitamin produces this recovery or controls the behavior of nerve tissue is uncertain. One of the most sensational developments following the availability of pure thiamine has been the demonstration that the results of excessive alcohol intake are frequently identical with those of vitamin B₁ deficiency.

How much Vitamin B₁ do we need?

Cowgill's formula indicated that a 140-lb. man with a calorie requirement of 2500 needs at least 248 International units of B₁ daily. It should be emphasized that this is the minimum requirement. Six hundred units is not excessive for the best health conditions.

Experimentation on human subjects has shown that restriction of B₁ produces moodiness, sluggishness, indifference, fear and mental and physical fatigue, and that until the daily intake

VITAMIN B₁

reached 600 International units per day full recovery and efficiency was not attained. Many nutritionists recommend at least 900 units per day (3 mgms).

The National Defense Research Council's recommendations (see p. 28) are as follows:

* 1	14 D	International Units
Individual	$Mgms. B_1$	Vitamin B ₁ Daily
Man		
Moderately active	1.8	599
Very active	2.3	766
Sedentary	1.5	500
Woman		
Moderately active	1.5	500
Very active	ı.8	599
Sedentary	I.2	400
Latter half pregnancy	ı.8	599
During lactation	2.3	766
Children up to 12 years		
Under 1 year	0.4	133
I- 3 years	0.6	200
4- 6 years	0.8	2 66
7- 9 years	1.0	333
10-12 years	I.2	400
Children over 12 years Girls		
13-15 years	I.4	4 66
16-20 years	I.2	400
Boys		•
13-15 years	1.6	523
16-20 years	2.0	666

Where can we get Vitamin B_1 ?

Synthetic thiamine or thiamine chloride is now available in pure form or in concentrates and tablets in all drug outlets. Yeast and liver preparations are rich in this factor as are also wheat germ and rice polishings and their extracts. The following table shows its relative distribution in foodstuffs:

Food Sources of Thiamine (Vitamin B₁)

r	ood Sources or	I mamme (vitamii	$1 \mathbf{D}_1$
Type of Food Animal prod- ucts	Excellent Sources Lean pork, chicken, kid- ney, liver.	Good Sources Egg yolk, brains, lean mutton, fish roe, codfish, sar- dines, whiting.	(whole or
Vege- tables	Green peas, green lima beans.	Potatoes, sweet corn, sweet potatoes, Brussels sprouts, cauliflower, cabbage, mushrooms, spinach, turnip greens, water cress, lettuce, collards, kale, onions, leeks, tomatoes, wax and green beans, parsnips, beets, carrots.	broccoli, kohlrabi,

VITAMIN B₁

Fruits

Prunes, avocados, pineapples, oranges, grapefruit, tangerines, dates, figs, plums, pears, apples, cantaloupes.

Bananas, watermelons, raspberries, blackberries.

Seeds

Wheat germ, corn germ, rice polishings, wheat bran, oats, whole-grain wheat, rye, barley, brown rice, peanuts, soybeans, cowpeas, navy beans,

dried peas.

Hazelnuts, chestnuts, Brazil nuts, walnuts, almonds, pecans.

For quantitative distribution in foods, see Appendix.

IV. The B Complex

1. VITAMIN B₂ (RIBOFLAVIN)

The discovery that "water-soluble B" consisted of several vitamins was proved conclusively when the substance known as riboflavin was identified. In England this was called vitamin B₂, and in the United States it was called vitamin G; it is now universally referred to by its chemical name, riboflavin.

What is Riboflavin?

Riboflavin is found in various sources. It was first shown to be present in milk (1879), long before anything was known about vitamins. Later investigators (1925) described this form as lactoflavin. It has also been discovered in liver and called hepato-flavin, and in other substances. All these forms have been shown to be identical in chemical structure—a single type of sugar called ribose, combined with a yellow pigment (flavin). Combining the two words gives ribose-flavin, or riboflavin. This name now applies to vitamin B₂ regardless of where it occurs.

What are the properties of Riboflavin?

Riboflavin is slightly soluble in water; it does not withstand the action of direct light, but is practically unaffected by heat. The pure substance is a light, yellow-colored, odorless powder containing seventeen carbon atoms, twenty hydrogen atoms, four nitrogen atoms and six oxygen atoms. In solution it shows a strong yellow-green fluorescence. It is insoluble in acetone, chloroform and ether, but somewhat soluble in alcohol. It is decomposed by visible and ultraviolet light.

How is Riboflavin potency expressed?

The United States Food and Drug Administration now requires that labels state the riboflavin potency in weight, that is, in milligrams or fractions of a milligram. A thousandth of a milligram is a microgram or one gamma (γ), and both terms (micrograms and gammas) are used on labels today.

Bourquin and Sherman worked out a method of determining the riboflavin content of food sources, and a value known as the "Sherman-Bourquin unit." This sometimes appears on labels. It may be converted to micrograms on the basis that one Sherman-Bourquin unit is equivalent to 2.5 micrograms of riboflavin (.0025 milligram).

What does Riboflavin do?

- (1) It prevents cracking of the lips and of the angles of the mouth, and certain other facial lesions (cheilosis or cheilitis).
- (2) It prevents abnormal changes in the eyes, which if not prevented, may result in failing vision and cataract.
- (3) It promotes and is essential to health.
- (4) It helps us burn the body fuel to produce energy.

How does it accomplish these effects?

(1) Skin Lesions

It was found in 1938 that sores occurring in the corners of the lips, which had previously been known as cheilitis or cheilosis, were apparently a direct effect of riboflavin deficiency. On a diet of corn meal, cowpeas, lard, casein, white flour, white bread, calcium carbonate, tomato juice, cod liver oil, syrup and iodide of iron, Sebrell produced a whitening of the skin at the angles of the mouth. These areas soften, and in a few days surface cracks and fissures appear. These remain moist and become covered with a honey-colored crust which can be removed without causing bleeding.

This condition is similar to that earlier found in children and called *perleche*. It immediately improved when treated with riboflavin. In 1939 it was definitely proved that cheilitis is cured by adequate dosage of riboflavin.

Deficiency of riboflavin in the diet of rats results in loss of hair and atrophy of the oilsecreting glands of the skin. Just how riboflavin corrects these conditions is not known.

(2) Effect on Vision

Cataract has been produced in rats by feeding them on diets lacking in riboflavin. This has been duplicated with other laboratory animals. The cataract was cured by treatment with synthetic riboflavin, which indicates that lack of this vitamin may be a definite cause of cataract.

It was also noted that the blood-vessels of the eyeball of rats were adversely affected by lack of riboflavin; indeed, this symptom preceded all others known to be due to riboflavin deficiency. This condition was rapidly cured by intake of riboflavin.

(3) Other Effects

It is possible that riboflavin may be a factor in curing pernicious anemia; it has an important general effect on growth, and may have some

effect on the production of hemoglobin, or red blood corpuscles.

How much Riboflavin do we need?

The adult requirement has recently been set as probably three milligrams daily and at least 2 milligrams. The National Defense Research Council's allowances (see p. 28) are as follows:

	Milli- grams of Riboflavin	Micro- grams or gamma	Sherman- Bourquin Units
Man	•	J	
Moderately active	2.7	2700	1090
Very active	3.3	3300	1320
Sedentary	2.2	2200	880
Woman			
Moderately active	2.2	2200	880
Very active	2.7	2700	1090
Sedentary	1.8	1800	720
During latter half pregnancy	2.5	2500	1000
During lactation	3.0	3000	1200
Children under 12 years			
Under 1 year	0.6	600	240
I- 3 years	0.9	900	360
4- 6 years	I.2	1200	480
7- 9 years	1.5	1500	600
10-12 years	1.8	1800	720
Children over 12 years Girls			
13-15 years	2.0	2000	800
16-20 years	1.8	1800	720

Boys

13-15 years	2.4	2400	96 0
16-20 years	3.0	3000	1200

Where can we get Riboflavin?

Like thiamine, riboflavin is now available in synthetic form in drug stores, and in capsules or concentrates. Its distribution in foods is shown in the following table:

Food Sources of Riboflavin

	Food Sources of Riboflavin			
Type of Food Animal prod- ucts	Excellent Sources Liver, kidney, heart, lean muscle meats, eggs, cheese, dried (whole or skim), condensed, and evaporated milk.	Good Sources Fresh (whole or skim) milk, buttermilk, whey.	Fair Sources	
Vege- tables	Turnip tops, beet tops, kale, mustard greens.	Peas, lima beans, spinach, water cress, collards, endive, broccoli, green let- tuce, cabbage, cauli- flower, carrots, beets.		
Fruits		Pears, avocados, prunes, mangoes, peaches.	Bananas, cured figs, grapefruit, oranges, apri- cots, guavas, papayas, muskmelons, apples.	
Seeds	Germ portion of wheat, rice polish-	Whole-grain wheat, dried legumes.		

ings, peanuts, soy-

For quantitative distribution of Riboflavin in foodstuffs, see Appendix.

2. NICOTINIC ACID (VITAMIN P-P)

In 1937 still another vitamin was found in the prolific "water-soluble B." It was found to cure the tongue and skin inflammation associated with the disease called pellagra in humans, and "blacktongue" in dogs. This disease is especially prevalent in localities such as the South, where the very poor subsist on starvation rations.

What is Nicotinic Acid?

It is an organic, or carbon-containing, compound which was shown to be present in the product first isolated from rice polishings by Funk. However, it was considered to be merely an impurity, as it had no beneficial effect on beri-beri. It should be mentioned that it bears no relation, chemical or otherwise, to *nicotine*, in spite of the similarity of the names.

What are its properties?

Nicotinic acid is a so-called "carboxylic" acid, having six carbon, five hydrogen, one nitrogen, and two oxygen atoms.

It may be obtained as a white, odorless, crystalline powder melting at 235° C. It does not ab-

sorb oxygen from the air (oxidize), and is not affected by heat. It is slightly soluble in water, and is soluble in alcohol.

How is Nicotinic Acid potency expressed?

In either milligrams or ounces.

What does Nicotinic Acid do?

It prevents and cures the sores, or *lesions*, as doctors call them, which are characteristic of pellagra in humans, and the analogous disease called blacktongue in dogs. Nicotinic acid amide is just as effective and is less irritating.

What is Pellagra?

Pellagra is a disease affecting the skin, alimentary tract and the central nervous system. The skin becomes rough, reddened, scaling, and cracked and is easy to distinguish from normal skin. These sores usually appear on the backs of the hands, the elbows, knees, ankles, neck, and underarm regions.

First to appear are lesions of the alimentary tract. Loss of appetite and burning of the tongue give way to intense inflammation of the tongue, mouth and gums. This is followed by stomach and intestinal inflammation. The changes in the

nervous system may result in delusions and hallucinations.

The disease is aggravated by exposure to sunlight.

How does Nicotinic Acid correct Pellagra?

Probably by providing building material for the conduct of normal cell metabolism, and thus acting to keep tissues healthy. Nicotinic acid is therefore not a "specific," or direct, cure for skin inflammation, but is necessary to keep the skin and digestive tract tissues in healthy condition. It also provides material for the building of coenzymes used in tissue metabolism.

How much Nicotinic Acid do we need?

The adult requirement is at least ten milligrams daily. The suggested allowances of the National Defense Research Council (see p. 28) are as follows:

	Milligrams Nicotinic Acid
Man	
Moderately active	. 18
Very active	
Sedentary	
Woman	
Moderately active	. 15
Very active	. 18
•	

Sedentary	12
During latter half of pregnancy	18
During lactation	23
Children under 12 years	
Under 1 year	4
I- 3 years	6
4- 6 years	8
7- 9 years	10
10-12 years	12
Children over 12 years	
Girls	
13-15 years	14
16-20 years	12
Boys	
13-15 years	16
16-20 years	20

It must be pointed out, however, that those afflicted with pellagra are usually deficient in several other vitamins as well, especially A, C, B₂, and B₆, and frequently need an increased quantity of these vitamins together with nicotinic acid.

Where can we get Nicotinic Acid?

It is on sale in pure form in drug outlets or in combination with other vitamins in yeast and in capsules, tablets and concentrates. Its distribution in foods has not been sufficiently studied to provide comprehensive tables. Elvehjem has reported the following values:

Nicotinic Acid Content of Foods

Foodstuff	Mg. Nico- tinic Acid per gm. dry material	Foodstuff	Mg. Nico- tinic Acid per gm. dry material
Liver, pork	I . 2	Brain, beef	0.3-0.5
Liver, lamb	I.2	Heart, pork	0.3
Liver, veal	0.9	Heart, beef	0.3
Kidney, pork	0.85-1.0	Yeast, brewers'	1.0
Pork loin	0.45-0.6	Yeast, bakers'	0.5
Pork ham	0.4	Skim milk powder	0.05-0.15
Beef tongue	0.4 -0.5	Wheat germ	0.05-0.10
Veal	0.5	Dried cereal grass	0.10-0.15

Sebrell has shown that the following foods contain significant amounts of the pellagra-preventive substances: Beef, chicken, pork, salmon, collards, kale, turnip greens, peas, beans, cabbage, cowpeas, mustard greens, spinach.

3. Pyridoxine (Vitamin B₆)

In the search for other vitamins in the B complex it was found that a specific type of skin inflammation in rats resulted from lack of what was first called vitamin B_6 , and is now known as *pyridoxine*. This vitamin was chemically identified at six laboratories in the same year.

What is Pyridoxine?

It is an organic compound made up of eight carbon, eleven hydrogen, two oxygen, and one

nitrogen atom. It has been shown to correct certain symptoms of pellagrins which are not affected by nicotinic acid.

What are the properties of Pyridoxine?

It melts at 205° C., is not decomposed by acids, alkalies or heat; its crystals are salty tasting and water-soluble. In tissues, it probably exists in combination with a protein. It may also supply building materials for tissue cells.

How is Pyridoxine potency expressed?

The potency of this vitamin is expressed in terms of the amount necessary to cure the type of skin inflammation called *acrodynia* in rats within three weeks. It is generally considered that this unit is the equivalent of o.1 milligram of pyridoxine crystals.

What does Pyridoxine do?

Very little is known as yet about the value of this vitamin in human nutrition. Its use in combination with B₁ and nicotinic acid in treating pellagrins has proved of definite value in correcting muscular fatigue. The human requirement and its exact function in human nutrition are not known.

Where can we get Pyridoxine?

The distribution of pyridoxine in common foods has been reported by Schneider and others (1939) as follows:

Inits per		Units per	
100 gm.	Food 10	00 gm.	
	Soybeans	400	
. 66		400	
. 25	Wholewheat bread.	400	
. 40	Oatmeal	330	
. 25		1000	
. 13	Rice polish	500	
. 66	Wheat germ	1250	
. 16	Beef tallow	330	
	Butter fat	200	
. 2500	Lard	2500	
	Linseed oil (comm.)	2500	
. 14	Linseed oil (crude).	2500	
	Peanut oil	5000	
. 125	(ether extract)		
	Peanut oil	5000	
. 125	(benzine extract)		
	Peanut oil (crude).	2500	
. 200	Rice oil (comm.)	2500	
	Rice oil	5000	
. 600	(ether extract)		
. 400	Soybean oil	1000-	
	(ether extract)	7000	
	Wheat germ oil	25000	
	(comm.)		
	Wheat germ oil	15000	
		20000	
	Dried yeast	400	
	. 66 . 25 . 40 . 25 . 13 . 66 . 16 . 25 . 2500 . 40 . 14 . 250 . 125 . 125 . 125 . 120 . 600 . 600 . 400	100 gm. Food Foo	

N.B. A unit equals the amount necessary to cure moderately severe acrodynia in 3 weeks.

4. Pantothenic Acid (Filtrate Factor)

In 1939 R. J. Williams reported that he had isolated a compound which he called calcium pantothenate, the name being taken from the Greek meaning "from everywhere." This substance is universally distributed in all living cells. Of it Williams wrote:

"Since its discovery pantothenic acid has been found to be not only present in widely different tissues and organisms but to function as a potent physiological substance stimulating the growth of yeasts, molds, lactic acid bacteria, diphtheria bacillus, protozoa, young alfalfa seedlings and liver worts, and to stimulate the respiration of various tissues.

"There is evidence that the same substance is required by pigs and dogs and the inference is not a wild one that it is necessary for the nutrition of all the higher forms of animal life and that it makes up an essential part of every living cell."

What is Pantothenic Acid?

It is an organic compound, the commercial form of which is made up of one calcium, 16 carbon, 32 hydrogen, 2 nitrogen and 10 oxygen atoms. Its value in human nutrition has not yet

been established. It is sometimes called "filtrate factor" because it was originally found in the residue of liver extract from which vitamins B₁ and B₂ had been removed by *filtration*. In the literature of nutrition, the word *factor* is often equivalent to *vitamin*.

What are its properties?

It is colorless, readily soluble in water and does not form crystals. The calcium salt has been synthesized. The acid itself is unstable. The salt, calcium pantothenate, is stable and is available in pure form.

How is its potency expressed?

With the availability of the calcium salt (calcium pantothenate) potency can now be expressed in terms of the actual weight of that substance.

What does Pantothenic Acid do?

It is not yet known how much is essential in human diet or exactly what it does. It has been found that the blood content of persons having pellagra contains less pantothenic acid than that of normal individuals, and that injection of pantothenic acid into the blood causes increase of riboflavin in the blood as well as of panto-

thenic acid, with no other change in diet. It appears to be essential to human nutrition and is probably associated with distribution of riboflavin.

It is at least one of the factors which can prevent graying of the hair. Two substances have been isolated from the B complex to date which seem to be concerned with hair pigmentation, namely pantothenic acid and para-amino-benzoic acid. Wooley also claims that inositol is involved in hair growth. The theory of the part played by pantothenic acid and para-amino-benzoic acid in the coloring of hair is as follows to date: Pantothenic acid deficiency results in adrenal hemorrhage, which interferes with the pigment control of the adrenal gland. Para-amino-benzoic acid is concerned in the actual formation of coloring matter (melanins).

Where can we get Pantothenic Acid?

The commercial form (the calcium salt) is now available in drug stores. As its name indicates it is widely distributed in foods. Some sources are: peanut, soybean and cottonseed meal. Yeast, rice, bran, and alfalfa are rich sources. Beef, fish, and eggs contain it to some extent; vegetables like carrots, onions, peas and beans have been proved to supply it.

5. Other Members of the B Complex

The B complex vitamins so far described have been successfully isolated and their structure determined and confirmed by synthesis. The following members of the B complex are thought to exist, but their identity has not yet been proved.

(a) Vitamin B₃

In 1928 it was found that, when pigeons are fed on polished rice and water to produce symptoms of polyneuritis, the addition of concentrated solutions of B₁ corrects the neuritic symptoms but fails to restore the birds to normal weight. Air-dried yeast was found to be quite effective in this respect. Tests led investigators to assume the existence of a heat-destructible factor in yeast other than B₁ and B₂. The B-complex was thus considered to be of a "tripartite" nature, the third member being called vitamin B₃. It was recently suggested B₃ may be identical with pantothenic acid.

(b) Vitamin B4

A heat-destructible, water-soluble factor different from B₁, B₂, or B₃, which prevented a sort of paralysis in rats, was reported in 1930. Its ex-

istence has been confirmed, and it has been concentrated from yeast extracts and defatted liver. It is designated as B₄. Human need for it has not been demonstrated, but it is apparently required by chicks as well as by rats.

(c) Vitamin B₅

That pigeons require for prevention of weight loss a heat-stable factor other than B_2 led investigators to assume the existence of a vitamin B_5 . This provided only weight maintenance of the pigeon; B_8 was necessary for weight increase. This is all that is known at present about this factor, with the exception of a recent suggestion that it may be identical with vitamin B_6 .

(d) Vitamin B₇ (I)

Centanni (1935) claims to have isolated from alcohol extract of rice polishings a substance which was without effect on beri-beri or polyneuritis, but which did prevent digestive disturbances in birds.

(e) Vitamin H (Biotin)

It has been reported that a type of skin inflammation produced in rats by eating raw egg-white is cured by injecting a substance obtained from

liver extract. This product was further concentrated and used effectively in doses of 3 to 5 micrograms. Its discoverer called it vitamin H. In 1936 a crystalline product, for which the name "biotin" was suggested, was isolated from egg-yolk. Previously a factor essential for the respiration of certain lower organisms had been found, to which the name "coenzyme R" was applied.

These three discoveries now appear to be dealing with the same substance. Since biotin has been obtained in crystalline form, it should be possible to determine definitely whether it is the same as vitamin H; if so, this joins the group of vitamins successfully identified.

(f) Vitamin J

Von Euler in 1935 reported the extraction of a factor from the juice of fruits that did not prevent scurvy but protected guinea pigs from pneumonia. This he called vitamin J. Its value in treating human pneumonia has not been demonstrated.

(g) Factors L₁ and L₂

Substances which are necessary to milk formation are said to be obtained from beef liver (L_1) and baker's yeast (L_2) . They are thought to

function in the maturation of the milk-producing tissues.

(h) Factor M

It has been found that nicotinic acid is of no value in correcting pellagra symptoms in the Rhesus monkey. Combinations of B₁, B₂, and nicotinic acid do not correct the mouth lesions. Dried brewer's yeast and liver extract do clear up the symptoms, however. A vitamin designated as Factor M has therefore been assumed to exist.

(i) Factor U

This is a vitamin apparently essential for chick growth. It is soluble in 50 per cent alcohol but insoluble in ether, acetone and isopropyl alcohol. Like W, its significance in human nutrition is unknown.

(j) Factor W

An additional rat growth promoting factor has been assumed and provisionally called Factor W. It may possibly be related to pyridine.

(k) Grass Juice Factor

The existence of a vitamin or vitamins in grass juice has been assumed, the nature of which has not yet been established. (This is not to be con-

fused with the fact that many of the known vitamins are present in grass).

In view of the fact that the B complex consists of several vitamins and that deficiencies are usually multiple, B complex preparations are extensively used today to insure the presence of all the factors rather than relying on B₁, B₂, B₆, Nicotinic or Pantothenic acid alone. Such preparations are furnished by yeast, liver, wheat germ, rice polish or their extracts.

V. Vitamin C (The Antiscurvy Vitamin)

What forms exist?

This vitamin is what chemists call a sugar acid. There are at least four forms which are more or less active in preventing scurvy, but the most potent and most widely distributed form is ascorbic acid. When we speak of pure vitamin C, it is ascorbic acid we have in mind.

What are the properties of Vitamin C?

Ascorbic acid is a white, crystalline product now available in pure form as tablets which remain quite stable in the dry state. It is readily soluble in water but insoluble in oils, chloroform or ether. It is soluble in alcohol. One milligram of pure ascorbic acid is equivalent to 20 International units.

In solutions, particularly alkaline ones, ascorbic acid oxidizes and gradually loses its activity. Thus addition of baking soda to peas during cooking, while it improves their color, helps to lower their vitamin C content. Oxidation is stimulated by exposure to light and air. Heat alone does not seriously damage the substance, but

when it is in contact with air at the same time, heat accelerates the oxidation, and resulting destruction of the vitamin activity is quite rapid. Keeping sources of vitamin C at low temperatures therefore helps to retain their potency. Tressler and associates have reported the following experiments with spinach; note how much greater is the rate of loss of ascorbic acid at the higher temperature:

		Milligrams of active ascorbic acid in one gram of leaves after			
Variety of Spinach	Temperature of Storage	o days	3 days	7 days	17 days
Hollandia	34-37° F.	.79	.76	.64	0.49
Hollandia	73-79° F.	.79	.39	.03	0.00

The destruction due to oxidation proceeds in two steps:

- (a) Conversion of ascorbic acid to dehydroascorbic acid. This reaction is reversible and the body can utilize either acid.
- (b) Oxidation of dehydro-ascorbic to threonic and oxalic acids. This reaction is *not* reversible and the body cannot convert these acids to antiscurvy material.

The ease with which the activity of ascorbic acid is destroyed by oxygen makes its retention in active form in foodstuffs a problem of consid-

VITAMIN C

erable care in storage, cooking, canning, and dehydration processes.

How is Vitamin C potency determined?

In 1932 it was shown that the presence and amount of ascorbic acid in a solution could be determined by using a dye known as phenolindo-phenol. That procedure is now the basis of colorimetric determinations. Its presence and amount can also be determined by measuring the quantities of source necessary to prevent or cure scurvy in guinea pigs. As stated above, the International unit of anti-scorbutic vitamin is now set as .05 milligram calculated at 20 units per milligram.

What does Vitamin C do?

The outstanding symptom of scurvy is hemorrhage. Bleeding caused by weakness of the blood vessels results from vitamin C deficiency. Such bleeding may occur in various parts of the body, and disturbance of function by it causes the joint, gum, and gastro-intestinal indications of vitamin C deficiency, or scurvy. Its lack also results in faulty formation of the dentine of teeth and of bone. Lack of C is also believed to be responsible for certain disturbances of tissue metabolism.

Vitamin C is thought to be capable of overcoming the toxic substances produced by certain bacteria such as diphtheria.

How does Vitamin C produce these effects?

(1) Failure of Intercellular Substance

It will be recalled that lack of vitamin A results in metaplasia of the surface, or epithelial tissues, and that vitamin A provides something needed within the epithelial cell for its normal form and behavior. The hemorrhage and tissue changes of scurvy are due to lack of something essential to the normal function and behavior of intercellular (between cell) materials, especially those associated with the connective tissues. Under normal conditions a typical cell (the fibroblast) lies in an amorphous intercellular substance within which fibrils are formed; these in turn become cemented together in wavy bands of collagen (a glue-like substance) like the setting of a gel. In guinea pigs deprived of vitamin C the fibroblasts are present just as in healthy pigs, but fibrils and collagen fail to form. With adequate dosage of vitamin C these intercellular substances appear within 18 hours.

In bone, the functioning cells are called osteoblasts, and the intercellular substance is bone-forming tissue. In the teeth the cells are

VITAMIN C

known as *odontoblasts*, and the intercellular substance is dentine. In both bones and teeth, lack of adequate vitamin C affects the character of the intercellular substance. Supplying vitamin C quickly restores it to normal.

Weakness of the blood vessels and consequent bleeding are therefore believed to be due to failure to supply "cement" material to the vessel wall. Faulty dentine formation in teeth results from lack of an essential substance required by the tooth odontoblasts. In bones, the condition suggests that in the absence of vitamin C the osteoblasts, being unable to form bony tissue, revert to their primitive connective tissue form and try to set up a fibrous union. This is revealed by x-ray and is a means of diagnosing vitamin C deficiency.

Some of these changes in bone are strikingly like the changes that occur in rickets, and it is often difficult to determine whether the deficiency is one of vitamin C or vitamin D, especially when scurvy is complicated with rickets as often happens in infants.

(2) Vitamin C and Pyorrhea

There has been recent evidence of a direct relation between vitamin C and pyorrhea. The loosening of teeth in scurvy by both man and

animals has been frequently observed. There may be two types of pyorrhea; one is a local inflammatory disease, the other a systemic process causing atrophy of the alveolar bone (jaw bone). The latter is similar to the conditions found in guinea pigs on a C-deficient diet; and in a limited number of patients with this type of pyorrhea there was a correlation between lack of ascorbic acid in the blood and weakening of the alveolar bone. Too little vitamin C in the diet may be therefore an important factor in producing this type of pyorrhea.

Abt and Farmer (1938) summarize the tooth situation as follows:

"Although there is still a dearth of exact knowledge of vitamin C in its relation to dental diseases in man, there is a general unanimity of opinion that an adequate intake of vitamin C is necessary for normal tooth growth and tooth structure, and the maintenance of healthy gums in man."

(3) Blood Changes Due to C Deficiency

Vitamin C may also affect the constituents of the blood. For example, it is claimed that vitamin C accelerates the coagulation time of rabbit's blood, and that the coagulation time of human blood is shortened in hemorrhagic cases and pro-

VITAMIN C

longed in normal persons. The white cells are said to carry a greater quantity of vitamin C than either the plasma or the red cells, and it has been suggested that vitamin C has a direct relation to the number of circulating white cells.

In scurvy there is usually a moderate degree of anemia, and it has been shown that vitamin C is beneficial in some of these cases when iron and liver extracts are ineffectual.

(4) Relation to Infection

There are a good many observations indicating that the presence of infection creates an increased demand for vitamin C, that vitamin C may be destroyed in the body by the action of infecting organisms, and that it may be helpful in controlling the immune bodies used to combat infections. But the exact way in which the vitamin functions is still undetermined.

How much Vitamin C do we need?

Abt and Farmer have worked out blood tests for C content and have reached conclusions as to what condition means inadequacy, borderline state, and sufficiency. According to them, if the blood plasma content of ascorbic acid falls below 0.5 mg. per 100 cc. the individual may be considered liable to scurvy. If the blood content is

I mg. per 100 cc. or more, the intake and absorption may be considered normal and adequate. Values between 0.5 and I mg. per cent are borderline cases suggesting need for increased vitamin C.

The National Defense Research Council's allowances (see p. 28) are as follows:

		International
	Ascorbic Acid	Units
Man		
Moderately active	· 75	1500
Very active	. 75	1500
Sedentary	. 75	1500
Woman		
Moderately active	. 70	1400
Very active	. 70	1400
Sedentary		1400
During latter half of pregnancy	. 100	2000
During lactation	. 150	3000
Children under 12 years		
Under 1 year	. 30	60 0
I- 3 years		700
4- 6 years	. 50	1000
7- 9 years	_	1200
10-12 years	. 75	1500
Children over 12 years		
Girls		
13-15 years	. 80	1600
16-20 years		1600
Boy s		
13-15 years	. 90	1800
16–20 years		2000

VITAMIN C

Where can we get Vitamin C?

Citrus fruits, tomatoes and vegetable greens are recognized today as our richest natural source of this factor. As the vitamin is producible synthetically without loss of potency as compared with natural sources it is of course available in tablets, capsules and concentrates. The following list is suggestive:

Type of Food

Excellent Sources

Good Sources Kidnev.

Animal Liver, brain.

products

Vegetables Collards, turnip greens, mustard greens, kale, watercress, spinach, dandelion greens, sweet peppers, kohlrabi, rutabagas, turnips, Brussels sprouts, cauliflower, cabbage, broccoli, asparagus, fresh and canned tomatoes, green peas, corn, salad, radishes.

Endive, cucumbers, potatoes, sweet-potatoes, green beans, parsnips, rhubarb, leeks, onions, globe artichokes.

Fruits

Guavas, mangoes, oranges, lemons, grapefruit, tangerines, currants, strawberries, gooseberries, raspberberries, cantaloupes. Pineapples, cherries, cranberries, papayas, bananas, peaches, apples, avocados, watermelon.

Seeds Sprouted seeds.

VI. Vitamin D (The Antirickets Vitamin)

How many forms exist?

Of nine forms of vitamin D, all showing some degree of rickets-preventing action, two, D_2 and D_3 , are most used today in concentrates, tablets and reinforcement of foodstuffs. D_3 appears to be the form most abundant in fish-liver oils and also the form which is activated by exposing human skin to ultraviolet light. D_2 is the form present in irradiated yeast and in the commercial product known as *Viosterol*. There is no D_1 for the reason that what was originally so named proved later to be a mixture.

For protection of chicks and poultry from rickets, D₃ seems to be superior to D₂, but for human use these two forms are approximately equivalent, unit for unit. The presence of other factors in natural sources, however, has considerable bearing on the amounts effective.

What are their properties?

Vitamin D₂ (activated ergosterol or calciferol). Ergosterol (or ergot sterol) is an alcohol found originally as the name indicates, in ergot.

VITAMIN D

It is present in other fungi and abundantly in yeast. Few natural foods contain it in any significant amounts.

Ergosterol itself, which can be extracted as a white, odorless substance from yeast, ergot or other source, has no potency against rickets. To make it active in curing rickets, some *chemical change* induced by irradiation with certain kinds of light is necessary. Ergosterol, then, is a *provitamin*. Vitamin D₂, or calciferol, is ergosterol activated with ultraviolet light. It is possible to activate ergosterol in other ways, such as with cathode rays and radium emanations, but ultraviolet light is most effective. The word calciferol was coined to define activated ergosterol, and an International unit of calciferol or D₂ is .000025 milligram of calciferol.

Viosterol is a solution of calciferol in oil, and is defined by the U. S. Pharmacopeia as a solution containing at least 10000 International units of vitamin D per gram.

Vitamin D₃, 7-dehydro-cholesterol, like D₂ is a sterol or alcohol; it also requires irradiation to activate it. Its unit is the amount necessary by rat bioassay test to produce the antiricketic action of .000025 mgm. of D₂ or calciferol. As stated above, it appears to be the form most abun-

dant in fish-liver oils, though these may contain other forms of antiricketic substance.

These sterols have certain characteristics in common, namely, solubility in fats and fat solvents and insolubility in water. They are similar in elementary chemical composition. To date, the most important differentiation has been between D₂ and D₃ in behavior toward chicks and humans. D₄ may be the form present in cereals which is activated when these cereals are irradiated.

They do not change readily when once activated, and are quite resistant to the processes of food preservation and cooking.

How is potency determined?

To date we have no satisfactory chemical or physical test for vitamin D content and are forced to rely on a bioassay method which measures the amounts necessary to cure a ricketic condition in the test animal, either rat or chick. Such methods are specifically defined in the U. S. Pharmacopeia and in the A.O.A.C. methods.

What do Vitamins D do?

(1) Regulation of minerals in blood

Primarily they control the proper distribution of calcium and phosphorus in blood and tissues.

VITAMIN D

Vitamins D alone, then, without adequate intake of these minerals, will not be effective. But if the minerals are present in sufficient amount, the D vitamins will prevent rickets and certain phases of tooth decay and regulate our use of these minerals in all parts of the body.

(2) Arthritis

Reed and associates (1939) have studied the effect of high dosage of vitamin D on arthritis. The response has been favorable in some cases but not in all. We cannot at present, therefore, feel sure that vitamin D has a specific relation to the arthritic condition.

How do they accomplish this effect?

One of the earliest signs by which doctors detect rickets is the change in inorganic phosphate (a phosphorus compound) in the blood. This decreases appreciably in rickets and is restored to normal by vitamin D. Calcium content of the blood is also lowered in rickets and raised by vitamin D, but not to the extent of inorganic phosphate.

These changes in the mineral content of the blood suggest that rickets in some way decreases the absorption of phosphorus from the digestive tract into the blood and that vitamin D increases such absorption.

Another sign of rickets is increase in the enzyme phosphatase in the blood. This enzyme occurs in various tissues of the body and is able to break down certain organic phosphoric acid combinations or esters. It has been shown that the cells concerned with bone growth and maintenance contain a high concentration of this enzyme. In rickets the addition of vitamin D eliminates phosphatase from the blood and concentrates it in the bone, where it is needed to cause precipitation of bone salt, calcium phosphate. Another way of expressing this effect is to say that it prevents leakage of phosphatase from the bone tissues.

Other possible values of Vitamins D

Vitamin D has been definitely shown to correct the morbid softening of the bone and the "bone hunger" of adults. During pregnancy it has the ability to prevent loss of calcium from the bones and teeth; and evidence has been produced to show that it is at least one factor in the prevention of tooth decay. It has also been claimed that vitamin D aids in fighting infection, but at the present time there is little to support this view.

The National Defense Research Council (see p. 28) recommends these daily intakes of calcium and vitamin D as desirable:

VITAMIN

	Grams of Calcium	International Units Vitamin D
Man		
Moderately active	0.8	400-800
Very active	0.8	400-800
Sedentary	0.8	400-800
Woman		
Moderately active	0.8	400-800
Very active	0.8	400-800
Sedentary	0.8	400-800
During latter half pregnancy	1.5	400-800
During lactation	2.0	400-800
Children under 12 years		
Under 1 year	1.0	400-800
I- 3 years	0.1	400-800
4- 6 years	1.0	400-800
7- 9 years	1.0	400-800
10-12 years	I.2	400-800
Children over 12 years		
Girls		
13-15 years	I.3	400-800
16-20 years	1.0	400-800
Boys		
13-15 years	I .4	400-800
16-20 years	I .4	400-800

How much do we need?

Jeans put the minimum human requirement from infancy to old age at probably 300 to 400 International units per day. Infants have, how-

ever, been protected against rickets on as low as 120-130 units per day, especially when the vitamin is combined with milk. In pregnancy the need is temporarily increased and 800 units per day is recommended. Since we can produce vitamin D for body needs by exposing the skin to ultraviolet light or direct sunlight, the intake by mouth requirement will vary with the extent to which this is done. For distribution see the table in the Appendix.

How can we get it?

The human skin produces provitamin D₃. Therefore, when the skin is exposed to sunlight, which contains ultraviolet rays, this vitamin becomes active and is absorbed from the skin into the blood stream. Thus one way to get vitamin D is to take sun baths or to use lamps that produce ultraviolet rays. Remember that sunlight that passes through ordinary window glass is ineffective, as the glass filters out the activating ultraviolet rays. For the same reason the sunlight that passes through a smoky atmosphere is also ineffective.

Special types of window glasses which permit most of the ultraviolet rays to pass through make irradiation possible without exposure to the

VITAMIN D

weather; and there are various forms of ultraviolet lamps for use in indoor light-bathing.

Few foods contain enough vitamins D to be of value unless they have been *fortified* with vitamin concentrates; some such are now available, for example milk, margarines, and cereals.

Fish-liver oils are good sources and irradiated yeast is also rich in the D vitamins. These are available in capsules and other drug supply forms.

VII. Vitamin E (The Fertility Vitamin)

How many forms exist?

There are at least three substances which have vitamin E effect but the most potent one is known as alpha-tocopherol. The name is derived from "tokos," meaning "childbirth," and "phero," meaning "to bear." The "ol" termination indicates that it is an alcohol.

What are its properties?

Like other vitamins it is an organic compound which contains 29 carbon, 50 hydrogen and two oxygen atoms. It has two characteristic properties, ability to maintain *fertility* and ability to act as an *antioxidant*, that is, to retard oxidation. Because of the latter property it is extensively used today in capsulated vitamin products to protect *other* vitamins such as A and C from destruction by oxygen.

Vitamin E is fat-soluble and may be extracted from its natural sources by ether and other fat solvents. It is not changed by heat and light, but in the presence of ferric chloride or certain fats

VITAMIN E

it undergoes destruction. It is suggested that the damage to certain animals on a cod liver oil intake is due, not to the toxicity of the oil, but to its destructive action on the vitamin E of the ration fed. The antioxidant property appears to be independent of the fertility function.

Vitamin E is not affected by visible light but long exposure to ultraviolet (invisible) destroys it. It is unchanged by the action of enzymes, by atmospheric oxygen, by strong acids, and by hydrogenation. Drying and cooking operations do not inactivate it.

How is potency determined?

Several chemical methods have been proposed for estimating E potency but none has proved fully satisfactory as yet.

Potency is usually expressed in Evans units. An Evans unit is the amount of source or vitamin necessary in daily doses during the 21 days of gestation of a rat to insure production of healthy young; for example, an Evans 525 mgm. wheat germ oil is one which when fed in 25 mgm. doses per day for 21 days is just sufficient to insure birth of a live rat litter. This appears to be the equivalent of from 1 to 3 mgms. of pure alphatocopherol.

What does Vitamin E do?

- (1) In addition to being essential to growth, this vitamin makes it possible for females to develop young to normal birth.
- (2) It prevents development of sterility in males. It has also been proved to prevent a form of muscular derangement called *dystrophy*.
- (3) It is claimed to prevent habitual abortion.

How does it accomplish these effects?

It was found that rats reared on diets otherwise complete but *lacking* some fat-soluble vitamin did not have offspring, though they were apparently normal in other respects. The females failed to carry their young to term; embryos died and were resorbed, but the female reproductive mechanisms were not damaged since adequate doses of the vitamin restored fertility. Male animals deprived of this factor, however, became infertile through degeneration of the germinal epithelium. Vitamin E dosage prevented this condition, but was ineffective in restoring them once the degeneration had occurred. Vitamin E can be destroyed by oxidation.

The role of vitamin E in the reproduction of rats has been fully established. It is essential, as stated above, for the production of normal litters

VITAMIN E

by the female and to prevent sterility in the male. We have very little data to determine whether these results with rats can be duplicated in other animals. Large doses of wheat germ oil are said to increase the size of rabbit litters, and several investigators have reported that the hatchability of hen's eggs depends to a degree on the vitamin E content of the egg and the vitamin E diet of the hen. From studies of the effect of vitamin E on male fowl, it is evident that it is probably intimately associated with the behavior of the nucleus during cell division. The striking difference in response to vitamin E deficiency in male and female animals would appear to be that in the male the damage is done to part of the animal's own tissue, while in the female the damage is to the fetus and not to the female's own tissue. Several investigators have shown that a derangement of the muscles occurs in rabbits on a diet lacking in E, and that subsequent feeding of this vitamin cures this condition.

In human experimentation previous to the discovery of its possible relation to muscular dystrophy, the principal interest has been in prevention of abortion. Various investigators have reported success in the use of vitamin E for this purpose.

How much do we need daily?

At the present time there exists no evidence to indicate a general deficiency of vitamin E in the American diet. It appears to be quite widely distributed in natural foodstuffs. For that reason, the Council of Pharmacy of the American Medical Association declined to allow claims of benefit from pharmaceutical preparations of this product.

Where can we get it?

Wheat germ oil is the richest natural source yet discovered. It has also been shown to be plentiful in animal foods such as milk, eggs, muscular portions of meat and fish and in the following vegetable foods: lettuce, spinach, watercress, legumes, peanuts, molasses, corn, wheat and many other whole grains.

VIII. Vitamin K (The Coagulation Vitamin)

How many forms exist?

Two forms have been isolated from natural sources. They are known as K_1 and K_2 . Both of these have been shown to be composed of a basic substance known as 1.4-naphthoquinone; a similar substance has been produced synthetically and has proved quite as effective as the natural products. Some of these synthetic forms have proved of great value because, unlike the natural forms, they are water-soluble and can therefore be used in injection treatments, as they are readily absorbed by the blood.

What are its properties?

Basically the vitamins K contain what chemists call the *quinone* group. Pure quinone is a yellow compound soluble in hot water, alcohol, and ether. There are many compounds formed from the quinone nucleus, and the ones that show anti-hemorrhagic qualities are grouped together as vitamins K. Each form has particular properties, and they range from products totally insoluble in water but soluble in fat solvents to forms easily

soluble in water. K₁ was isolated from alfalfa, K₂ from putrefied fish meal. It is apparently producible by certain types of bacteria and may be formed in the human gut to some extent.

How is potency determined?

Several units are employed to express vitamin K potency. The Dam unit is described as follows:

"The Dam unit is the least amount per gram of a chick's body weight which is necessary to prevent prolongation of blood clotting time beyond normal limits during a 2 week assay period."

A clotting time of 1 minute was considered normal. Later a curative method was devised and in human studies the effect of K was measured by a test devised by Quick (1938). This method actually estimates the prothrombin content of the blood.

The Ansbacher unit is the minimum amount necessary to render the blood clotting time of a vitamin K-deficient chick weighing 70-100 gms. normal within 6 hours after taking. Synthetic vitamin K was found by this method to contain 2,000,000 Ansbacher units per gram.

VITAMIN K

What does Vitamin K do?

Vitamin K normalizes the clotting power of the blood. It accomplishes this by control of the production of *prothrombin* in the blood. In this way it prevents certain types of hemorrhage.

How does it accomplish this effect?

The first to recognize the existence of vitamin K was Dam of Copenhagen (1935), though other workers had noted that chicks fed on ether-extracted fish meal showed 50 per cent of deaths due to bleeding.

Dam noted this same bleeding phenomenon and also that it could be controlled by giving the sterol-free portion of hog liver fat, or by feeding alfalfa. Because the unknown factor controlled the amount of prothrombin in blood and thus aided coagulation, Dam called it the *Koagulation* vitamin or vitamin K.

There are various theories of blood coagulation, but in general it is agreed that the clot is formed by the conversion of fibrinogen to fibrin by a ferment called *thrombin*. Thrombin does not exist ready-formed in circulating blood, but in a *prothrombin* state. This prothrombin is converted into thrombin by combination with calcium and by the action of a blood substance

called thromboplastein. Blood clotting therefore proceeds in two steps:

- (1) Prothrombin + thromboplastein + calcium = thrombin.
- (2) Fibrinogen + thrombin = fibrin.

On the assumption that the blood clotting rate is proportional to the concentration of thrombin, Quick developed a method of making clotting time an actual measure of the prothrombin content of blood. As the effect of vitamin K is to increase blood prothrombin content, Quick's test is now in general use clinically to estimate the effect of vitamin K preparations on the prothrombin content of human blood. Prothrombin is believed to be formed in the liver. It is therefore obvious that if vitamin K is deficient in amount or if it is not absorbed into the blood, prothrombin production fails, blood clotting ability is lowered, and hemorrhage may result.

It is not yet known whether vitamin K enters into the formation of prothrombin as a chemical constituent or merely keeps certain tissues in a state of activity essential to its formation.

IX. Vitamin P (Citrin or Eriodictiol)

What is the vitamin?

In 1936 Szent-Gyorgyi isolated a flavone glucoside complex (a sugar compound) from lemon juice and later from lemon peel, and called it citrin. Provisionally its active component is called vitamin P. In the crude P concentrate several compounds have been identified, namely hesperidin, eriodictiol, and a quercitrin-like flavone. Eriodictiol can be readily formed from hesperidin, and there is a tendency to consider this the active vitamin in the citrin complex, but this is not fully established.

What are its properties?

Citrin, as isolated, forms light-yellow crystals sparingly soluble in water but very soluble in alkali, giving intense yellow solutions. These crystals are a mixture of difficultly water-soluble hesperidin and readily water-soluble eriodictiol. Recently (1941) a method of producing a solution of citrin from lemon juice suitable for therapeutic use has been developed.

Eriodictiol is a combination of flavonol with sugar to form a glucoside. Such a combination renders the dye, flavonol, colorless so that in plants the flavonol glucoside is colorless. "Splitting" of the sugar by hydrolysis permits the yellow color to develop.

How is potency expressed?

By actual weight of flavonol glucosides present in a solution determined by iodine titration (Lorenz and Arnold, 1941).

What does Vitamin P do?

It prevents certain types of hemorrhage no due to vitamin C or vitamin K deficiency.

How does it accomplish this effect?

Of it Szent-Gyorgyi says:

"I had a letter from an Austrian colleague who was suffering from a severe hemorrhagic diathesis (vascular type). He wanted to try ascorbic acid in his condition. Possessing at that time no sufficient quantities of crystalline ascorbic acid, I sent him a preparation of paprika that contained much ascorbic acid and the man was cured by it. Later with my friend, St. Ruszynak, we

VITAMIN P

tried to produce the same therapeutic effect in similar conditions with pure ascorbic acid but we obtained no response. It was evident that the action of paprika was due to some other substance present in this plant. It would have been a hopeless job to try to find and isolate this substance had we not had our experience with flavons. So we set out to prepare flavons, in the first place eriodictin, that can be easily injected and we found that similar pathological conditions, not previously amenable to therapy, could be cured by it with regularity. The effect had several characteristics of vitamin-action, so, tentatively, I called it "Vitamin P" in honor of Paprika and Permeability, on which later it was found to have an influence. As yet, I have failed to demonstrate its vitamin nature by animal experiments and until such proof is given the vitamin nature of this substance is not beyond doubt."

Kugelmass suggests that, as it is known that in plants glucosides are capable of immobilizing certain other substances until they are needed in metabolism, or in removing the poisons from certain substances, perhaps its protection of the blood vessels is due to this poison-removing

power. It has been claimed to be effective in reducing blood pressure, in correcting capillary bleeding of allergic individuals, and in the treatment of a skin disease known as psoriasis, but its behavior in these conditions needs further study. It is also not yet certain that the effect of "citrin" preparations is due to a single constitutent.

How much do we need?

Kugelmass in his treatment of purpura cases used oral doses of 150 mg. daily of a solution containing 50 mgms. per cc. of citrin.

Where can we get it?

It has been demonstrated to date only in lemon and paprika.

Appendix Table of Vitamin Contents of Foodstuffs

		TITAMIN CON	VITAMIN CONTENT PER 100 GMS.	GMS.	AVE. SERVING		TTAMIN	VITAMIN CONTENT PER SERVING	T PER S	ERVING
Foods	A I.U.	B ₁ I.U.	B ₁ 7	C I.U.	Portion	Gms.	∀	Bi	B,	ပ
Almonds	580 4	\$ 09	1009	10	12-15	15	26	o	100	o
Apples	751	8-151	43 🕷	30-4001	I small	8	7.5	8-15	4	30-400
Apricots, dried	5000	301	1051	# 09I	4-6 halves	30	1600	01	33	52
Apricots, fresh	4000	101	511	20 %	2-3	8	4000	01	Şī	8
Artichokes	200	60 1	1291	1751	I large	8	8	8	129	175
Asparagus, green	7001	65-123 38, 41	1160 21	3.48-800 #	4-5, 4" pieces	လ	350	32-61	&	174-400
Asparagus, white	0-501		160 #	6501	4-5, 4" pieces	S	0-25	50	&	325
Avocados	10001	34	100	400	×	8	1000	34	8	400
Bacon	1 20	7	n or		2 8 . 4 7 1 1	ĭ	•	90		o
Banana			# O.	220 19		8	စ္တ	14-18	S	220
Barley	,	206 44	010		I tbsp.	14	0	38	0	o
Beans, green	10001		93 8	3001	14 cup cooked	8	1000	19-24	83	300
Beans, dry kidney	٨.	1501		0 1	14 cup cooked	စ္တ	~-	S		o
Beans, dry lima	1001	1704	1000	0	15 cup cooked	30	စ္တ		300	o
Beans, fresh lima	5001	1 57-114 41.4	365 🗯	1009	1 cup cooked	8	200		365	8
Beans, dry navy	0	1284	12001	# o	14 cup cooked	30	o		400	
Beans, dry soy	1001	4854	1000	0 1	14 cup cooked	စ္က	30		300	o
Beans, fresh soy	2001	1751	3001	1008	1 % cup cooked	8	80		300	8
Beans, wax	0		1201	3∞1	K cup cooked	8	0		120	300
Beef, lean	208		100-375 80.		3 5 028.	100	32	_	90-375	
Beet root	ij	10-17 d. 4	24-50	001	K cup	8	Ħ		24-50	8
Black berries	1501	*8		# 09	ı cup	8	150	œ		8
Blueberries	1001	154		1001-00	₹ cup	8	1 00	15		90-120
Brain, beef	54 8	\$6\$	25040		3 tbsp.	15	21	15-40		
Bran, wheat	1401	100-360 18			3.5 023.	8	54	26	250	
Bread, rye	Ħ	101			1 slice	4	ij	%		

	Bread, white	Ħ	22 G	0.1	-	ı slice	25	Ħ	v	0	0
	Bread, whole wheat	Ħ	95-113 18, 41	120 18		1 slice	30	ij	28-40	40	
	Broccoli	9000	33 4	2108	1400-25001	12 cup cooked	8	8	33	210	1400-2500
	Brussels sprouts	2001	\$7.4	1081-06	10001	6 ave.	2	140	37	63-126	700
	Buckwheat	Ħ	200 44			35 cup cooked	30	ij	8		
	Butter	24001	351	10	# O	r pat	o I	240	3.5	o	0
	Cabbage, head	0-1001	27 4	44-66	60-128 16	% cup cooked	8	918	72	44-66	60-128
	Cantaloupe	3001	201	73	1009	X	150	450	30	110	8
	Carrot	21001	74,	67 8	60-128 *	3% cmb	8	2100	74	67	60-128
	Cauliflower	301	\$64	127		4 heaping thsp.	20	21	6	85	1050
	Celery, bleached	101	124	351		2 stalks	20	s	9	18	20
	Chard	0000		1381	×	12 cup cooked	8	8		138	100-460
	Cheese, Cheddar	20001	14 4	750-800 10. 43		I 0Z.	28	8	4	250	
Q	Cheese, cottage	5001				I heaping thsp.	30	150			
1	Cheese, cream	21001		140 11.4		I 02.	28	620	4		
	Cheese, Swiss		IO 10	600 ts		1 02.	28	180			
	Cherries	2001	17 4	1051	1001	15	8	8	11	105	160
	Chestnuts		S7 18		X O	3	1.5		∞		٥
	Chicken, ave	0	26-43 4:3	1381		3.5 ozs.	8	0	26-43	138	
	Chicken, dark	0	37-77 4:8	260 10: 2		3.5 ozs.	8	0	37-77	260	
	Chicken, light	0	25-48 2	70-80 10:3		3.5 ozs.	8	0	25-48	70-80	
	Clams	141	7.1	15 10		9	8	14	7		
	Coconut		201			I"XI"IX"I	1.5		9		
	Codfish	5 1	301			3.5 028.	8	¥0	30		
	Collards	10001	4 49	3001	200-1200 ts	14 cup cooked	801	7000	67	30	200-1200
	Corn, dry W					35 cup cooked	30				
	Corn, dry Y		1784			35 cup cooked	30		53		
	Corn, yellow sweet	5001	40-50	121	163-2007	I ear	8	8	40-50	121	163-200
	Cranberries	201			300 M	3% cup cooked	8	ő			8

AVE. SERVING VITAMIN CONTENT PER SERVING	Gms. A B ₁ B ₂ C	28 200 3	15 200	50 IO 8 I2 2I-50	1500 300	•	30 45 7 13 0	100 21	0 0 21-00	16 448 19 38-62 o	15 30 42	50 500 25 100-125 0	7500 16 60	50 7500 14 60 200	30 60 22 75 0		15 31	100 13	120 213	120 67	205	130 22-30	130 38-65	
AVE. SERVID	Portion (I OZ.	r thep.	×	X cup		3-4	6-12	н	н	14 cup cooked		н	2 large leaves	*	3-4	13	3.5 028.	I cup	I cup	I cup	I cup	I cup	
∞ GMS.	C I.U.			42-100 #	300 %	•	¥ O		8	**	42-100 #	M O	4001	4∞1	0 1	36 16								
VITAMIN CONTENT PER 100 GMS.	В1 γ			141			451		190-229 #	239-385 28	301	207-248 20	1201	1201	751	451				80 M		404		
ITAMIN CON	B, I.U.	101		151	151	254	25 1	21.4	Ħ.	1184	151	So 18	334	281	22 1	25 1	206 18	13 18	186 4	S6 18	10001	17-23 48.4	20-50 4: 48	
>	A I.U.	1089	13601	201			1501		0	28001	351	H	150001	150001	801	501		Ħ						
	Foods	Cream, 20%	Cream, 40%	Cucumber	Currants, red	Cocos	Dates, dried	Dates, fresh	Egg white	Egg yolk	Eggplant	Eggs	Endive 15000 1	Escarole 15000 1	Figs, dried	Figs, fresh	Filberts	Fish, ave. lean	Flour, graham	Flour, rye	Flour, stone ground	Flour, pat. white	Flour, str. white	

	850 640-020 20	00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	2500
	21 12 5	30-92 82 125 450 360 360 760-900 1120 834-3000	1188
154 128 51 48 31	4 4 8	15 46 46 46 28 28 303-510 25 25 174 156	63 90-11 4
;	ğ ° ° ;	ti. ti. 2 2 0000 ti.	000 000 000 000
128 128 128 128 128	8888	8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	888
1 cup 1 cup 1 cup 1 cup 1 cup 1 cup	x x cup x cup	1 Dunch 1 Dunch 1 Cup cooked 1 K cup cooked 1 K cup cooked 1 K cup cooked 1 S cup cooked 2 S cup cooked 2 S cup cooked 2 S cup cooked 3 S cup. 3 S cup. 3 S cup. 3 S cup.	% cup cooked 2 ozs. 2 ozs.
	8501	001 708 8008 12008 6001 6001	2500 1
	21 28 12 28 5	39-92* 83 * 225 10 450 10 560 1 160-300 10 1 1120 10 834-3000 1	600 1 1800-2400 16:3 1980 2
120 th 100 th 100 th 37 th 24 th 0 th	24 4 47 ti 10	151 464 466 466 51 284 1046 303-510 ³ 1174 ³ 150 ³	63 4 105 ³ 150-190 ³
-	0 0		20000 1 1000 1 1000 1
Flour, 94% extr Flour, 82% extr Flour, 75% extr Flour, 70% extr Flour, 60% extr Flour, 42% extr	GrapefruitGrapefruit juice Grapefruit juice Grape juice	Grapes tr.1 Greens, bect 12000 1 Greens, dandelion 12000 1 Greens, turnip 10000 1 Hadlock 5 1 Hadlock 5 1 Hadlott tr. 440 4 Ham, fresh 440 4 Ham, fresh tr. 7 Ham, fresh tr. 4 Ham, fresh tr. 5 Ham, fresh tr. 6 Ham, fresh tr. 7 H	Kale
_ समसमम म	Grap Grap Grap Grap	6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	Kid Kid

	_	TTAMIN	VITAMIN CONTENT PER 100 GMS.	GMS.	AVE. SERVING VITAMIN CONTENT PER SERVING	70	TTAMIN	CONTE	NT PER S	ERVING
Foods	A I.U.	B, I.U.	, B ,	C I.U.	Portion (Gms.	V	B	B	ပ
Kidney, pork					2 025.	8				
Kidney, veal	10001	. %	2400-2700		2 028.	8	8			
Kohlrabi		201	75 14	12001	K cup cooked	8		8	7.5	1200
Lamb, ave. lean		60-111 (+1	280-360 80 8		3.5 028.	8		111-09	280-260	
Lard, hog	7 18	33 18								
Leeks	201	32 10		200 #	3-4, 5	8	S			80
Lemon	Ħ.	101		800-000	12 cup	8	Ħ	ព		800-008
Lemon juice	0	I o I	tr.1	1200 25	12 cup	801	0	o I	Ħ	1200
Lentils, dry	Ħ.	1701	3151	0 1	14 cup cooked	စ္တ	ij	51	8	0
Lettuce, green	4000	25 1	71.8	200 %		ខ្ព	8	2.5	7	30
Lettuce, head	1001	204	*8 *	1001		õ	õ	2.0	Ŋ	01
Lime juice				750 15	12 cup	801				750
Liver, beef	9000	89-129 4: 3	3000-3700 48: 1	750	2 025.	Ş	2400	55-178	55-178 1800-2200	450
Liver, calf	5475	45	3500-4400 M· H· B	6501	2 028.	8	3285	27	2100-2640	420
Liver, chicken		7.5	2630 40	4503	2 028.	8		45	1578	270
Liver, lamb	5475	100-1381	2600-5400 60: 13: 8	7503	2 028.	Ş	3285	60-81	1560-3240	450
Liver, pork	80009	1561	2500-3000 H: 1	525	2 028.	8	3600	46	1500-1800	315
Liver, sheep			4350 ts		2 028.	8			2510	
Lung, beef		70 18			2 028.	8		42		
Mango	15001	301	189	1 08	н	8	1500	9	8	8
Margarines, fortified.	1781	۰			I thsp.	15	٣			0.3
Meal, white corn	0	lor •	en 06		3% cup cooked	စ္က	0	30	30	8
Meal, yellow corn	500 1	784			% cup cooked	စ္တ	0	150	25	
Meal, Farina	0	24-43 10			% cup cooked	တ္တ	0	7-13		

Meal, hominy, white. Meal, oattr		66 18 190-270 ²⁰	1051		cooked	ဗ္က ဇ္က	ė į	20 57-81	32	
Ă	1101	164	190-225 43,7	240 -40 25	ı glass	82	8	20	342-405	43-72
		S-16 to	% of 08	20-40 l0		180			6210	
75	_	1 105 4	15001	100 I	I 0Z.	တ္တ	3 01	31	450	ဓ္ဌ
91		1254	2000 48	158 61		30	S	37	618	
8	-	17-24	303 7	26 11	3 023.	8	603	15-21	270	
						30			3-12	
IIO		10-12	7501	120 %	I oz.	30	33	3-4	36	
7		14,	1801		r glass	180	4	25	324	
		24044			cooked	30		73		
0		tr.4				0,	0	Ħ		
70	_	30-37 1: 🕊	90-640	60-380 46	4 large	8	0	30-37	90-640	60-380
		,61		244 15	×	150		8		366
		3 18		3300 16		ห		0.3		495
					•	8				
ä		210-200 44. 20	IOS 1		% cup cooked	36	75-104	38		
		2424			3% cup cooked	30		73		
1.1		2704	105 1		3% cup cooked	30	Ħ	81	35	
·	_	0 1			I thep.	15				
0	_	0 1			I tbsp.	15				
٦.		01			I tbsp.	15				
ō	_	• 1			I tbsp.	15				
525					I tbsp.	13	78			
8	_				I tbsp.	15	45			
					1 tbsp.	1.5				
0	_	01			I tbsp.	1.5				
400	_	42 4		300 M	spod 9-5	20	8	21		8

A I.U. B ₁ I.U. B ₂ γ C I.U. 1901 125 ¹ 2 ¹ 15 ¹ 0.1 120 1 123 ¹ 200 m 45-350 ¹ γ8 4 15 ² 120 1 2000 1 11.1 40 ¹ 15 ¹ 450-1200 ¹ 11.1 16 18 1 29 m 11.2 16 18 1 29 m 11.2 16 18 1 29 m 11.3 18 1 200 m 11.1 16 18 1 21 m 11.2 200 m 11.3 18 1 200 m 11.3 18 1 230-200 i m 120 1 350 4 100 1 350 4 100 1 350 1 0 0 m 120 1 350 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 130 1 130 1 0 0 m 120 1 131 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1			VITAMIN CC	VITAMIN CONTENT PER 100 GMS.	GMS.	AVE. SERVING VITAMIN CONTENT PER SERVING	NG ~	TTAMIN	CONTE	NT PER	SERVING
1901 0 1 0 1 125 2 1 15 0 0 125 2 1 15 0 45 350 78 4 15 300 65 26 4 29 760-1240 3000 11 40 15 2000 11 16 18 200 200 12 16 18 200 200 13 19 200 200 13 19 200 200 14 16 18 200 200 15 8 4 21 18 48 1000 13 4 130-200 130 400 350 4 300 10 13 4 300 10 10 13 4 10 10 13 4 10 10 13 4 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	Foods	A I.U.	Ą	В1 7	C I.U.	Portion	Gms.	A	ğ	B	ပ
1251 21 101 1251 21 101 101 102 103 45-3501 7841 153 200 35 65 264 2973 760-1240783 30001 11 1618 450-12001 201 318 20001 171 1618 2008 21 84 2178 500 35 20001 171 601 140-26378 30001 171 601 140-26378 30001 171 601 140-26378 30001 171 601 140-26378 30001 171 601 140-26378 30001 171 601 140-26378 30001 171 601 140-26378 30001 171 601 140-26378 30001 171 601 140-26378 30001 171 60	Olives, green	1901		0 1	01	H	ũ	61		0	o
45-350 ¹ 78 ⁴¹ 123 ³ 200 35 45-350 ¹ 78 ⁴¹ 15 ¹ 450-1240 350 35 45-350 ¹ 30 ¹ 15 ¹ 450-1240 35 45-350 ¹ 30 ¹ 15 ¹ 250-1240 1 45-350 ¹ 30 ¹ 15 ¹ 258-800 35 11, 16, 13 200 1 12, 3, 13 200 35 13, 14 200 35 10, 3, 14 200 35 10, 3, 14 20 350 35 10, 3, 14 40 200 35 10, 3, 14 40 200 35 10, 3, 14 40 200 35 10, 3, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10	Olives, ripe	1251	2 1	151	01	H	v	9	0.1	6.0	0
45-350 ¹ 78 ⁴¹ 15 ¹ 450-1200 ¹ 65 ⁸ 26 ⁴ 29 ²² 760-1240 ²⁸ 45-350 ¹ 30 ¹ 15 ¹ 450-1200 ¹ 470-1240 ²⁸ 470-1240 ²⁸ 470-1200 ¹ 2000 ¹ 470-1200 ¹ 2000 ¹ 470-1200 ¹ 2000	Onions	0	104	123 8	200 %		8	0	01	123	300
65 264 293 760-1240 301 8 4 48-60 35 8 4 8 900 1 10 1 8 4 130-1240 31 8 9 1 10 1 10 1 10 1 10 1 10 1 10 1 10	Orange juice	45-3501	784	151	450-12001	12 cup	8	45-350	84	15	450-1200
45-350 ¹ 30000 ¹ 11. ¹ 40. ¹ 11. ¹ 40. ¹ 11. ¹ 40. ¹ 11. ¹ 40. ¹ 41. ¹ 40. ¹ 40. ¹ 40. ¹ 40. ¹ 40. ² 40.	Oranges	65	₹90	20 2	760-1240 8.9		8	65	56	30	760-1240
45-350¹ 30¹ 15¹ 450-1200¹ 30000¹ 11¹ 16¹¹ 2000¹ 11¹ 16¹¹ 2000¹ 0¹ 3¹¹¹ 60¹ 140-26³ 30 3000¹ 17¹ 60¹ 140-26³ 30 5¹ 84 200 30 10¹ 84 200 30 10¹ 84 2133 48-60 30 1000¹ 13³ 4 300¹ 350 4 2000¹ 13³ 4 130-200³ 300 30 200¹ 13³ 4 130-200³ 300 30 200¹ 13³ 4 130-200³ 300 30 200¹ 10¹ 18³ 20 30 30 30 30 2000¹ 10¹ 18³ 20 30 30 30 30 2000¹ 10¹ 18³ 20 30 30 30 30 30 2000¹ 10¹ 18³ 200 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 3	Pancreas, beef			550 M		2 028.	8			330	
30000 1 11. 1 401	Papaya	45-3501	301	151	450-13001	X	901	45-350	30	1.5	450-1200
tr.1 401 258-800 48 tr.1 1618 01 318 01 318 10001 101 601 140-263 58 30001 171 500 58 51 84 200 58 7.0 2044 102 84 2178 48-60 58 3034 103 84 2178 48-60 58 3008 4001 3504 3504 3501 3505 58 50001 101 158 4000 58	Parsley	30000 1				ro sprigs	01	3000			8
17. 16 18 0.1 3.18 0.1 3.18 0.1 3.18 1000.1 17.1 500.08 5.1 84 20.08 5.2 35.4 10.1 84 21.28 520.08 530.4 10.1 84 21.28 400.1 350.4 500.08 500.	Parsnips	tr.1	401			X	8	ij	4		258-800
01 318 01 318 01 318 10001 171 30000 177 1	Pastes (macaroni)	t.	16 18			3 cup cooked	30	ij	4		
0 3 3 4 60 1 140-263 35 300 3 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Pastes (sago)	0	3 18			3% cup cooked	30	0	-		
1000 10 60 140-263 #5 300 #5	Pastes (tapioca)	0	3 18			3% cup cooked	30	0	ı		
3000 171 500 8 5 84 200 8 7 9 944 26324 0 3504 21 84 21 88 48-60 8 520 8 101 84 21 88 48-60 8 1000 1334 130-200 1 8 30 8 400 1 3504 3504 138 8 4600 8	Peaches, yellow	10001	101	100	140-263 25	H	80	1000	o	8	140-263
51 84 200 38 70 2044 20324 0 3504 101 84 21 38 48-60 38 520 33 3124 10001 1334 130-2001 3304 5001 101 1384 6001 3004	Peaches, yellow dry		171		200 %	2 halves	30	3000	17		200
2944 2944 2954 26524 0 3504 101 84 21 22 48-60 25 10001 1334 130-2001 20 25 4001 3504 101 1384 4600 25	Peaches, white	51	8		200 26	H	8	Ŋ	80		200
20324 20324 20324 0 3504 101 84 21 m 48-60 m 520 m 3124 110001 1334 130-2003 m 300 m 4001 3504 50001 101 101 1384 4600 m	Peanut butter		79								
26324 25038 101 84 2138 48-6038 52038 10001 1334 130-2001-38 30038 4001 3504 3001 5001 101 1384 460038	Peanut germ		294								
101 84 21 M 48-60 M	Peanut skin		26324								
101 84 21 22 48-60 28 530 28 11000 1 1334 130-200 1 28 300 28 400 1 3304 3304 0 58 5000 1 101 138 4600 28	Peanuts	0	3504			16-17	15	0	53		
\$20 M \$124 130-200 P M \$300 M \$400 M \$500 P 138	Pears	101	84	21 22	48-60 \$		8	ខ្ន	∞	21	48-60
3124 1000 1 1334 130-200 3 30 3 400 1 3504 300 1 10 1 138 4 600 3	Peas, dried	520 M				1/2 cup cooked	စ္တ				
10001 1334 130-2031 3 30 3 400 1 300 1 300 1 30 1 30 1 3	Peas, dried cow		3124			1/2 cup cooked	30				
4001 3504 3001 025 50001 101 1388 460025	Peas, green	10001	1334	130-200 3: 28	300 #	I cup	100	000	133	130-200	300
50001 101 1388	Pecans	4 00	3504	3001	K O	12 halves	15	8	53	45	o
0 - 1	Peppers, red		101	138	4600 25	H	8	2000	o	138	4600
5000 101 138 •	Peppers, green	50001	101	138	270025	H	8	2000	o I	138	2700

820	20	140	14	40-116	120		240-600	210-450	0	8	8	74			300	100-200				25	8	904				950
	36	21		45		230-390	102-105	67-82	588	45		ю					4	Ħ		v				225	•	
	တ္ဆ	25		91		300-500	46	74-93	30	15		a		126	∞	œ	48-54	٣			15	25		Ħ	m	v
	8	147					3450	45	1250	2500		Ħ		157-193	230	Ħ	Ħ	ij	198-375	&	٥	25	0	30-750		13
8	8	8	8	8	8	8	150	150	20	8	8	ដ	8	30	8	8	30	8	ဇ္တ	°	8	8	120	8	စ္တ	လ
×	% cnb	% cup		3	% cap	3.5 028.	H	H	4-5	₩ cup cooked	м	н	12 cup cooked	% cup	1 cap	₹ cup	14 cup cooked	% cup cooked	I 0Z.	I large leaf	12 cup cooked	15 cup cooked	I cup	3.5 028.	3 med.	% cnb
820 18	500 25	140 11	141	40-116 2	120 16		160-406 26	140-300 25	R O	1001	100 E	240 26			300 #	100-200				2501	25 000	1004				# 00I-0
	361	21 1		451		230-200 66: 2	68-70	45-55	11761	451		301		125 10			1501	ij.		461			1051	225 1	•	
	30 4	25 II		164		300-500 4: \$	31 4	49-624	•	151		201		33-6610	84	*8	159-175 20	IO IS	666-1250 18		151	25 4	131-161 44,4	11.1	101	104
	8	147 11					2300 21	301	25001	25001		ť.ì					Ħ.1			80°1	0	25 1	01	10-7501		25 1
Persimmons	Pincapple	Pineapple juice	Plantains	Plums	Pomegranate juice	Pork, lean	Potato, sweet	Potato, white	Prunes, dried	Pumpkin	Quince	O Radish	O Radish leaves	Raisins	Raspberry	Rhubarb			Rice polish	Romaine	Rutabaga, white	Rutabaga, yellow	Rye	34 mon 30-7 to 1	Sardines	Sauerkraut
Persimm	Pincapp	Pineapp	Plantain	Plums.	Pomegra	Pork, lea	Potato,	Potato,	Prunes,	Pumpkir	Quince.		Radish 1	Raisins.	Raspber	Rhubark	Rice, bro	Rice, po	Rice pol	Romaine	Rutabag	Rutabag	Rye	Salmon	Sardines	Sauerkra

		VITAMIN CON	VITAMIN CONTENT PER 100 GMS.	GMS.	AVE. SERVING VITAMIN CONTENT PER SERVING	NG 1	TTAMIN	CONTE	NT PER	SERVING
Foods	A I.U.	B ₁ I.U.	B₃ γ	C 1.U.	Portion	Gms.	Ą	Bi	B,	ပ
Sauerkraut juice		35 4		180-206 28	K cup	8		35		180-206
Sausage, bologna		1751			2 slices	30		23		
Sausage, pork		1151			2 5 ozs.	7.5		84		
Shallots	300 15				9	8	38			
Soy beans, dried	4854				12 cup cooked	30		162		
Soy beans, green		1594			3.5 ozs.	8		159		
Spinach 250∞1	250001	35-43 4, 41	436 38	15001	14 cup cooked	8	25000	35-43	436	1500
Squash, Hubbard	40001	16-31 4: 41	461	*	1/2 cup cooked	8	4000	16-31	46	8
Squash, summer	10001	14 4	521		1/2 cup cooked	8	900	14	53	
Strawberries	740	\$	ű.	720-1300 25	oı	8	740	œ	Ħ	720-1300
Tangerines	35010	301	301	700 18	н	8		တ္တ	క్ట	904
Tomato	10001		38 28	360-400 25	H	8	801	20-44	38	360-400
Tomato juice	10001	20-261	36-1741	250-6001	12 cup	8	801	30-26	36-174	250-600
Tongue, beef		10001	220 60		3.5 ozs.	8		8	220	
Trout		50			3 5 028.	8		50		
Turnip, white	0	204	423	\$2 009	14 cup cooked	8	0	ő	4	8
Turnip, yellow	201	121	361	\$2 009 \$2	12 cup cooked	8	8	13	36	8
Vest sue		11 011-01	Si							
, day, ave		40-117	440-343		3.5 068.	3		40-112	240 343	
Walnuts	120 45	114-1404.45		# 0	8-15 halves	15	18	17-21		0
Walnuts, English	1001			¥1 O	8-15 halves	15	15	23		o
Watercress	4000		2701	10001	ro sprigs	o	8	4	27	8
Watermelon	125 10		301	120-300 25	K cup	8	125	30	30	120-300
Wheat	Ħ.I	118-1904.4	1051		% cup cooked	30	Ħ	33-60	35	
Wheat bran		440 🕫			3 tbsp.	1.5		8		

Wheat germ	1000	81008-009	-		15	150		
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		•••	3-4-2	I giass	8		•,	3-4
38	1150	1500		ı cake	14 3346	191	210	
Yeast, bakers dried	238 18	2000-4000 M		I 0Z.	30	79		
	80 IB	3770-42304		. 20 I	30	333		
Young berry 450		141		ı cup	100 450		7	
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102

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